AN EXPLORATION OF YOUNG PEOPLES POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT IN POLICY FORMATION PROCESSES IN NIGERIA (NIGER DELTA)

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AUTHORSHIP DECLARATION

I, Bari-ika Nornubari Vite, do hereby declare that all of the work presented in this doctoral thesis is entirely my own except where derived from other references sources, cited accordingly. In the interests of confidentiality, all personally identifying information to research participants has been rendered anonymous.

Signed: ..... Date: .....

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my late Father Ndakpea Vite and Mother, Daughter, Vite.

Abstract

Young people in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria (NDN) are requesting the Federal Government to embrace and formulate an inclusive national youth policy to tackle young peoples challenging issues. The African Youth Charter also discusses young peoples privilege to engage in issues that concern them. This research deploys a qualitative investigation based on a social constructivist approach to analyse and explore young peoples engagement as a participatory factor in the implementation and formulation of policies concerning young people in NDN.

The aim of the study was to comprehend the processes that challenge and motivate young peoples involvement processes and policy procedures at the regional and federal levels. This study uses focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews with a total of 30 participants, comprising 21 young people (aged 16-24), 4 members of civil society organisations, and 5 official policy makers. The findings present different views and approaches of policy makers concerning young people. The research acknowledged diverse elements that contribute to this difference.

The study centres on the distinction in policy procedures of Nigeria, Niger Delta region. While for some regions the main discussion is the formulation phase of policy, this research presents that in NDN the major deliberation is at the phase of policy implementation. Although young people in NDN are to some extent involved in formulating policy, as they are consulted at the implementation phase, they question the Nigerian governments commitment to genuinely engaging young people in the decision-making process. In view of this disparity between engagement theory and practice, this research finds that it is essential for young people to be effectively included in policy procedures and appeals for young peoples political capital. Conclusively, this research advocates a re-evaluation of the apolitical (politically neutral) standing sometimes attributed to young people in NDN and a commensurate reorientation of youth policy to extend the scope of involvement for young people in policy formation.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APC	All Progressive Congress
APYP	Action Plan for Young People
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
EU	European Union
FHSCE	Faculty of Social Care and Education (Anglia Ruskin University)
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus Infection and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
MYC	Ministry of Youth and Culture
MYCSM	Ministry of Youth and Culture Stakeholders Medium
ND	Niger Delta
NDN	Niger Delta Region, Nigeria
NDYCA	Niger Delta Youth Christian Association
NDYDC	Niger Delta Youth Development Commission
NDYL	Niger Delta Youth Leader
NGN	Nigerian Naira
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PAR	Participatory Action Research
PDP	Peoples Democratic Party
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNCRC	United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
US	United States
YP	Young people
YPAR	Young Peoples Advocacy Rally
YPE	Young Peoples Engagement
YPP	Young Peoples Policy

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background: Youth Policy in Nigeria

In the 2006 Commonwealth Young People (CYP, 2006) special programme, young people had a separate forum along with partaking in the rest of the programme. These indicate a change in attitude towards young people at global and national levels, thus, according to Ranis, Stewart and Samman (2006) is targeted to develop a new ethical order that is internationally accepted. This can be the view that young peoples issues may possibly connect the societies to challenge social vices (Ranis, Stewart and Samman, 2006: p.28). The connection between young peoples issues, tranquillity and development was articulated by late Kofi Annan a one -time United Nations Secretary (UN, 2005a).

Furthermore, young peoples activities progressively enlighten the activities of international

humanitarian agencies. For instance, AU (2006) suggested that the easy way of acknowledging the value of humanity is to engage young people. As such, it becomes stylish for the NGOs to use young people as representatives of international civil society (Chaaban, 2008) to uphold their involvements. Again, this can contribute to the view that young people are significant to human society (Vite, 2018). Consequently, the supposed global youth are promulgated internationally under the patronage of young people activities.

Young peoples activities have developed over the years. In 1959, the African Union (AU) and United Nations (UN) promoted the participation of young people and many nations have introduced these deliberative changes, for example the Nigeria Youth Policy Document (Republic of Nigeria 2009; AU, 2010). Vite (2018) argued that the document convene significant changes to the way young people are viewed, specifically the conceptualisation of youth engagement that has not being demonstrated in many regions of the country. Thus, Vite (2018b) stresses that the Nigerian Youth Policy document considers the views of young people as being possession of youth activities that is fundamental to their emancipations.

This research centres around young people engagement in policies that relate to youth in NDN (see chapter 6). Furthermore, the document also mentions that youth has the right to partake in democratic activities that are of concern to them. This research focuses specifically on young people aged 16-24 years, for the rationale explained in chapter 5.

The perception that young people in an established democracy seem to avoid participating in the political process, such as electoral activities and political party engagement. Has been a major subject of academic debate for decades, particularly concerning young people (YP) (Brockington, 2004; Kim, 2013; Hansen, 2016; Peters, 2016). This is generally conceptualised under the issue of young peoples engagement (YPE), with studies aiming to discover why YP are often observed to be unconcerned or indifferent to prescribed (formal) political processes (Kelso, 2011; Marsh, 2011; Mayne, 2012; Ki-Choon Song, 2013; Hansen, 2016). Thus, this has driven some commentators to distinguish the political nonparticipation of YP as an

important component in the supposed emergency of democracy, in relation to the political structure (Green and Schwam-Baird, 2016).

The Nigerian Action Plan for Young People (APYP) (Republic of Nigeria, 2009 www.youth policy.org/national/Nigerian_2009_Youth_Plan.pdf), spells out the vision of Nigerian youth policy. Aiming to advance happiness regarding basic human rights and ensure the health and social, economic and political wellbeing of every single young person. Furthermore, with the specific end goal of improving YPE in the general improvement process and enhancing their personal satisfaction or quality of life. It centres around 18 precedents, including wellbeing and education, gender and peacebuilding, HIV/AIDS, movement and human trafficking, health and economy, political and social development, participation and poverty awareness.

The APYP is chiefly governed by the auspices of the Ministry of Youth and Culture (MYC), and its Development wing is charged with youth undertakings with the vision to engage Nigerian young people to be resourcefully confident and socially dependable. The Ministry has offices and departments concerned with entrepreneurship development, skills acquisition, vocational training and YP voices, education and employment. The MYC is in charge of federal youth policy, youth improvement programs, funding and sponsoring youth undertakings, and youth engagement. In view of which it administers the National Youth Services Corps and the Citizenship and Leadership Training Centre in Abuja. This section is about the connection of this research.

1.2 Relevance of the Study

The significance of active citizenship and engagement in political issues for the development of improved democratic government in Nigeria has been particularly debated, with the main point of discussion among researchers and policy makers being the initiation of more current vote-based systems in the country (Tranter, 2010). Attention has often been paid to clarifying

and explaining the outstanding low rates of formal and informal political engagement among the public (Blevis, 2014; Donoghue and Tranter, 2010; Kelso, 2011; Kim, 2013; Mancosu and Vezzoni, 2017). Furthermore, in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria (NDN), the area of focus in this study, YP seem to show less interest in voting or joining political movements and participating in political gatherings (Pavlovic, 2012; Zeglovits and Zandonella, 2013).

Nevertheless, the political engagement of YP as a particular group in the federal system of government has attracted few academic scholars (Wohnig, 2016). Comprehension of the interrelated dynamics of political operators, foundations and YP in Nigeria remains limited (Babatunde, 2015), largely due to the social and political encounters of modern day YP in democracy have changed from those of previous generations, and current political participation behaviours will probably have an impact on the way political inclusion is experienced by incoming generations, which presents a gap in knowledge requiring continuous monitoring of developments both in politics and YP interaction with political activities (Alozieuwa, 2012). Timely insights are needed to form the basis of practical initiatives to support YP political participation, and this study undertakes to inform decision makers concerning NDN.

1.3 Aim of the Study

The aim of this research is to address the issue of YPE in a qualitative study, providing a detailed outline of the kind of YPE and disengagement in NDN. By interpreting these findings in relation to those of previous studies in established democratic settings, this study identifies significant relationships and disparities. Given the low levels of YP political inclusion in NDN, this research focuses on engagement and disengagement factors. However, this study is not about commonly known themes of corruption in political participation in Nigeria, rather it aims to extend understanding of the comprehensive milieu in which YP political withdrawal occurs, identifying important characteristics and ways to encourage YP toward

greater participation.

1.4 Research Questions

The focal questions supporting this research are:

Main question:

- What is the nature of young peoples political involvement in policy processes in Nigeria (Niger Delta)?

Sub question:

- In what ways are young people engaged in policy processes in the Niger Delta?
- What are the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process?
- In what ways are young peoples engagement in policy processes promoted in the Niger Delta Region?

The study essentially explores the extent to which political engagement processes relate to the present generation of YP in NDN. This generation is particularly significant as the first to lack direct experience of military authoritarianism, although it continues to be affected by postcolonial and military legacies, thus it is instructive to compare their experience in terms of attitudes toward political participation with their peers in mature democracies (Babatunde, 2015).

1.5 Overview of Nigerian Youth Policy

An overview of Nigerian youth policy content and the region of Niger Delta. The ND region is located in the Federal Republic of Nigeria, it covers a vast land of minority ethnic group, which is situated in the south-south area in Nigeria. The Niger Delta Region encompasses nine of Nigerian State and its population which are Abia State, Akwa Ibom State, Bayelsa State, Crose Rivers State, Delta State, Edo State, Imo State, Ondo State and Rivers State, with total land area of about 75,000 square kilometres and 185 local government areas. The political map of Niger Delta is shown in Figure 1.1, and the population of each state is shown in Table 1.1.

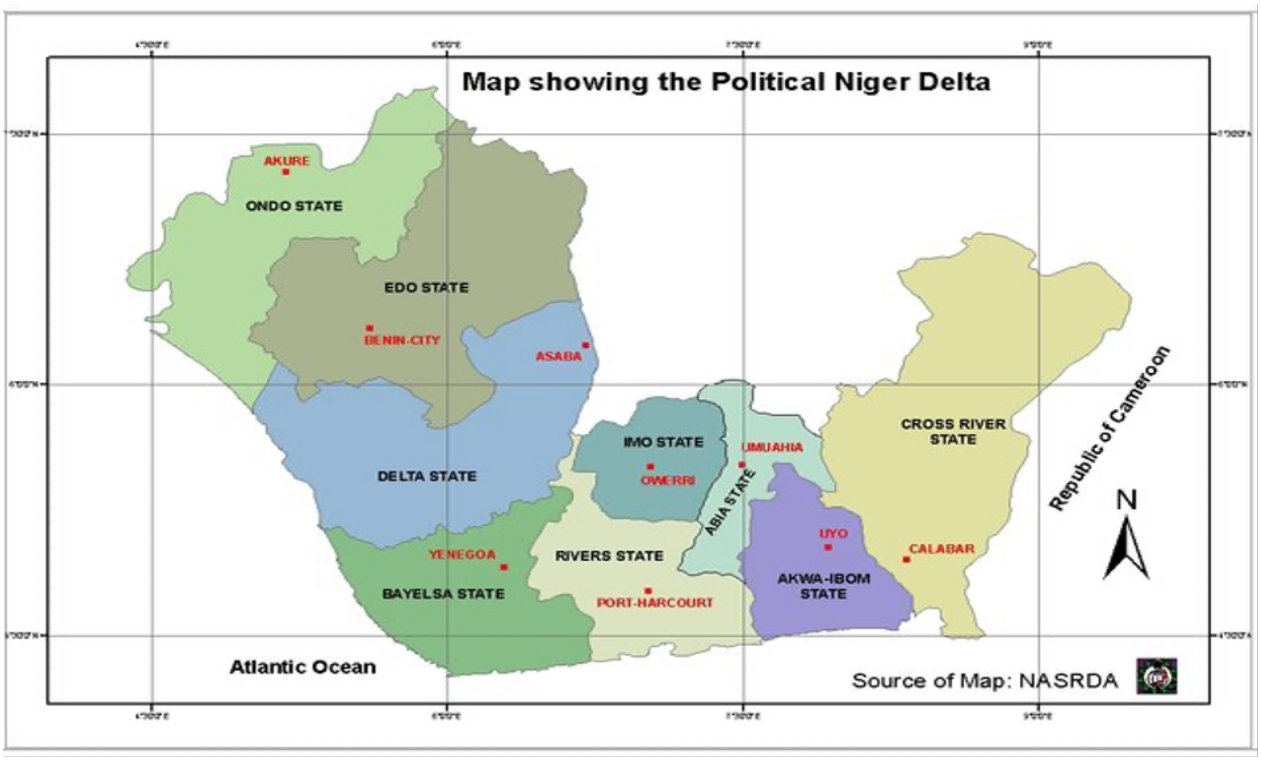

Figure 1.1: Political map of Niger Delta Adapted from NASRDA

Table 1.1: Niger Delta population data - Adapted from 2020 World Bank Group

Niger Delta States in Nigeria	**Population**
Abia State	3727347
Akwa Ibom State	5482177
Bayelsa State	2277961
Cross Rivers State	3866269
Delta State	5663362
Edo State	4235595
Imo State	4671695
Ondo State	4671695
Rivers State	7303924
Total	42637086

The Region is of greater assets and different mosaic of ecological characteristics (Akpomuvie, 2011). It has five different ecological zones, in the variation between the barrier island forest and coastal vegetation areas and extends to the montane habitats with its attendant issues (Induka-Ozo, and Igba, 2017).

It has difficult topography that encourages people together in small communities and distinct cultural heritage that is based on over 250 speaking dialects and languages and over 40 different ethnic groups, with the 33,329 settlements in Niger Delta region, 95 per cent have populations of about 16,000 (Knight, 2017). These are the rural communities and they are offer limited economic opportunities, what is very deplorable is poor social services and infrastructure in general, which is vastly poor for an estimated population of over 42 million. (Knight, 2017, p.3).

Its youth policy is theme to concerned empowering young people, making possible impact on the regional and federal development which is considered to pattern stakeholders participating

in young peoples development project in Nigeria. There are about 20 concerned areas in the 12 sections of the policy; the first two sections set out the policy overviews. The third section gives definition of young people and offers the youth at between 15 years and 35 to 40 years. The fourth section of the policy document present what government has identified as significant issues facing young people, which the policy intends to address. In section five, it presents the vision of the basic policy values and principles and six policy objectives.

The sixth section mention 20 concerned areas that need implementation in order for policy objectives to be meet. At section seven identifies 9 youths priorities that policy makers and implementers need to prioritise. In eight and nine section, it identifies the youth rights and obligations as well as that of the stakeholders in the youth projects. In section ten, it presents the mechanisms of policy implementations and stresses on youth partnerships and work with the Ministry Youth Development and youth associations. The last two sections, eleven and twelve state the structuring, monitoring and policy reviews as well as timeframe of the reviews.

1.6 Research Outline

The first section has three chapters which set out the fundamental definitions utilised in this research, outlining and clarifying why I have selected some wide explanations of the activities that constitute political engagement and policy formulation. Also, analysing the significance of active political participation in fortifying the quality of democracy, particularly in a popular democracy. Explanations are given concerning YP political engagement and formulation structures recognised in researching modern democracy and analysing traditional democratic factors likely to have an impact on YP political participation in the modern democracy of Nigeria.

Chapter Four critically reviews literature pertaining to policy processes, while chapter five

sets out the methodological basis for this research. Specifically, it gives detailed clarification and explanations of the rationale for NDN, that are applied in order to develop a set of interpretative analyses by which this study will clarify the rationale for adopting a qualitative study approach.

Chapters six and seven analyse and discuss the main research findings from this study, with particular attention to structures of political engagement in the policy process.

Chapter eight concludes the main findings of the research and considers their broad impact in comprehending youth political engagement and formulation and implementation processes, outlining the discussions and the conclusion as well as the research implications and contributions to literature. Figure 1.2 shows the themes and aspects of the research dealt with in related chapters.

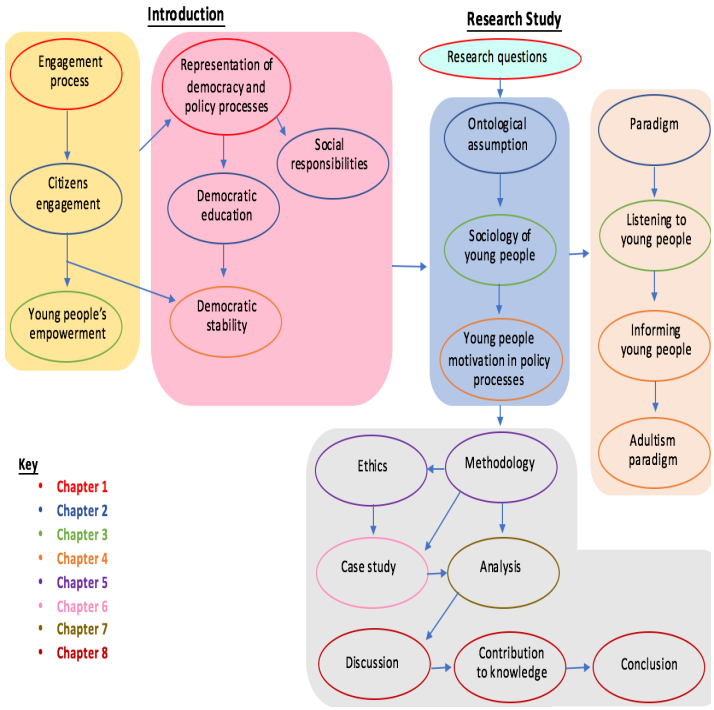

Figure 1.2: Research structure

1.7 Political Participation

Political engagement is the fundamental element of democratic government, and the structure and amount of citizenship in political participation that influences the level and quality of democracy in NDN. The studies of political participation assume a principal role in numerous political science studies, although the importance of the concept itself is debated (Isaksson, 2014). In order to clarify how political engagement is understood in this research and in which activities, this section first considers how previous studies have interpreted and applied the concept of political participation, with a brief analysis of the main debate on the activities that are ought to be recognised as political engagement (Rogowski, 2013), before the presentation of the operative interpretation of the researcher that is adopted in this study.

Although turnout of elections remains the most important activity that is associated with the estimation of the political engagement, various acts that are included in citizenship affect governmental issues or politics, such as political party activism, signing petitions, attending or organising demonstrations, putting on campaign logos or badges and getting in contact with official policy makers. Confronted by such an extensive variety of possible activities, numerous meaningful attempts have been made by scholars to produce an organised system for participation (Lundberg and Hysing, 2015).

1.7.1 Typology of Participation

Hansen (2016) and He (2016) differentiated between traditional and uncustomary participation, which are mainly differentiated by means of their relation to the official channels. For example, electing or party activism are customary, while other activities organised separately from this channel, including protesting or picketing, are uncustomary political participation. While this pattern remains relevant, modern researchers of political participation in established democratic systems (Hoskins, 2013; Lafont, 2014) increasingly question it. For

example, Norris (2012) contends that, in the modern era, the approaches that citizenship uses in co-operating politics have significantly changed in terms of repertoire (the nature of engagement), organisation (the agencies by which citizens engage) and the aims or targets of political engagement or participation.

Indeed, many scholars have noted that the difference between customary and uncustomary participation has gradually decreased (Bolleyer and Bytzek, 2016; Gladstone and Pepion, 2016; Carrillo-Santarelli, 2017). In the past, uncustomary participation was observed to be an activity undertaken by the few followers from the students (e.g. students and anarchists) against government activities, representing the traditional corporate elites (Soloman, 2008). However, in more recent times, engagement in protest, for example demonstrations and boycotts, have become significantly more common and conventional (Houser, Ludwig and Stratmann, 2015; Hern, 2016) and have a considerably bigger scope of potential aims, which may involve entrepreneurship, organisations and trying to influence popular beliefs and conducts (Norris, 2012). Furthermore, the factors of engagement have turned out to be considerably different from those of the past, due to modern technologies, specifically social media and other channels for mass communication and mobilisation with equal or superior access to the traditional channels and greater access for the grassroots movements (Baghai, Servaes and Tamayo, 2014).

These basic changes in the approach by which citizens participate politically suggest that giving a wide description to what activities constitute political engagement and what falls outside of this has become a dynamically debated issue (Forestiere, 2015). This is especially so when scholars endeavour to identify the difference between activities that relate to political and civil society (Froissart, 2014).

The political arena, in which participation occurs has also changed since the late 20th century and must be reviewed (Wu, 2014). In order to strengthen the democracy, Bouma (2014, p.4) clarified the differences according to their roles in a political society that constitutes the

main basics of the political parties, rules of elections, voting, political agendas and leadership, interparty involvements, and law-making bodies and civil society. According to which, this is the severe difference, it only involves those activities that are clearly political (that are openly organised to affect the government policies) that should come under the heading of political society (Beeri, 2013). However as presented above, numerous activities in which citizens participate are not specifically linked with political parties or voters, but they nevertheless seek to influence political leadership or decisions makers, and most often succeed in doing so.

The overlap between political and civil society has been analysed to various degrees by scholars (Rogowski, 2013; Wallman Lundasen, 2014). Bee and Guerrina (2014, p.4) differentiated between political and civil society according to the characters of the actors who are involved and the views and aims of different organisations, contending that political society primarily involves the elite class and institutions while civil society is the domain of normal citizens. Feenstra (2015) considers civil society to comprise any methods of social action conveyed through individuals or groups not connected to or sponsored by the government. Furthermore, Vite (2018a) conceptualised it as a voluntary expression of desire and interests of orderly citizens integrated by common interests, principles, aims, ethics, and beliefs, mobilised into coordinated action. Civil society includes a range of actors along with an inclusive collection of commitments, citizenries, structures, levels of organisation, purposes, scope, resource levels, sociocultural and political contexts, ideas, membership, demographic coverage, approaches and plans (Vite, 2018c).

Civil society may look for political influence, while political society already commands this. Despite this fundamental difference, Bee and Guerrina (2014, p.8) admitted that there is still overlap between civil and political societies. Martin (2012) considered this issue in terms of organisations, for example with YP associations and village groups being part of civil society, and political gatherings, political awareness gatherings and NGOs having the potential to be part of either political or civil society, or both (Gareau, 2012).

However, diverting such nuances in the analysis of conceptual differences between political and civil society, they are of little utility to an operational definition by which to explore civil society in a study of political participation. Trying to describe civil society and political society essentially excludes numerous activities from being viewed as types of political participation by putting them under the banner of civil society. For example, in this distinction, many juxtaposing organisations can be gathered together as civil society organisations, such as environmental movements, which can range from large, multinational coalitions exerting significant leverage over national government projects (e.g. infrastructure projects such as building airport terminals or hydroelectric dams) to small, localised community gatherings concerned with relatively small issues (e.g. tidying up a town lake).

Groups also differ in terms of the nature of their objectives, with some aiming specifically to change government policies, in which case this can signify that some of its members decamped from other formal organisations, and they may involve individuals from political parties. In contrast, another groups activity may not have the objective of modifying government policy, but members may be local politicians or individuals from other organisations. The complex, interconnected and overlapping nature of aims and activities among political and civil society organisations reflects that there is no genuine, inherent, fundamental division between the political and civil society spheres; indeed, as noted at the outset of this discussion, civil society is an integral part of the political life of a democracy, thus any division between civil and political society is an artificial device used for analytical purposes (Barrett and Brunton-Smith, 2014), which in this study relates to disengaging non-state activities (including political parties activities in the case of NDN) from formal political engagement activities.

Nevertheless, the researcher intends to consider a wide interpretation of political engagement by analysing the most important changes in the collections (repertoires) of political participation and the way this is connected with the youth engagement approach in NDN. Accordingly, the researcher will not categorise activities as customary or uncustomary, or as

components of civil or political society. Rather the activities are classified as political engagement if their objectives are to incite some forms of political change or changes in behaviours targeted towards the general population, on a voluntary basis. It involves the conventional types of political participation, for example voting and party enrolment, however it can be sufficiently wide to involve an extensive variety of informal types of engagement, including activities in complex political systems and voluntary organisations (Nayak, 2012).

In utilising such a comprehensive interpretation, the researcher intends to achieve a full perception of how and why YP in NDN includes or avoids political participation. Considering that, there appears to be lack of current empirical evidence in this area, intentionally omitting activities based on being uncustomary or members of civil society may confine the comprehension of the interrelated impacts and logic behind YP political participation in NDN.

1.7.2 Theory of Democracy and Political Participation

In the period of classical Greek civilisation, the role of changing classes of citizens in political life (the extent of their engagement) was a key question along with the commensurate forms of governance. That are reflected in the same way in Platos cycle of five successively degenerating regimes (aristocracy, timocracy, oligarchy, democracy, and tyranny), and the general outline of the ancient Greek philosophical debate continues to shape modern views of democracy, which (contrary to the ancient view) is espoused as the ideal form of government (Woojin, 2009; Wallach, 2006).

The form of direct democratic government as practised in Athens are generally considered as the archetypal form of democracy (Wallach, 2006, p.353). This model supported the necessity for full engagement of citizens in policy formation, according to the understanding that citizens were Athenian freeborn men (Dean, Fielding and Smith, 2016). For Peters (2016), a restrictive structure was chosen that made citizenship engagement less significant

in itself than the need for the best form of government to execute the law. Indeed, universal suffrage was the only achievement in the most Western democracies during the 20th century that are generally given up by the elites on the condition that newly enfranchised groups (e.g. working-class people, adults without property, and women) would be engaged into existing political structures (e.g. voting for political parties constituted within pre-existing proto-democratic structures). While it is beyond the scope of this study to present a broad analysis of democracy by itself, it is necessary to understand the context of the politics and political engagement in NDN in order to comprehend the factors in which Nigerian politics was developed.

The modern Nigeria was dominated by British colonialism from 1861 to 1960, simultaneously with the gradual enfranchisement of the working class in the imperial metropolis. In the UK, people from the working class were allowed to participate in Chartist movements petitioning Parliament from the early 19th century and then allowed to organise into trade unions (i.e. civil society movements) from the mid-19th century. Until they were finally enfranchised with the newly formed Labour Party (a popular replication of the more radical elements of the Liberal Party) following the First World War (Robertson, 2016). This gradual approach of handing down democracy to subjects who had demonstrated their deservingness was replicated in the case of colonial governments (and often used as an excuse to prolong colonial domination), whose people had to be educated and prepared for democratization and independence. Postcolonial elites (Reddy, 2015) often continued this general strategy in postcolonial states.

During the 20th century, particularly after 1945, the prevailing structure of a liberal democratic system was organised and established in Nigeria with increasing autonomy until independence in 1960 (Ikeji et al., 2013). Beliefs in individual freedom, rights of citizenship and laissez-faire economics (open market system or free market) supported this structure. This liberal democratic system structure assumes the existence and meaningfulness of citizenship engagement, which varies in practice, and the promising Nigerian democracy degenerated

into the Nigerian Civil War (1967-1970) followed by the rule of military juntas (1970-1999) (Bell, 2016).

The most common solution proposed by the international community for failed democratic states in Africa is procedural democracy, whereby the forms of democracy (i.e. genuine, fair elections) are instituted, with international observation, as a precursor to a more genuine, widespread and in-depth diffusion of democracy in troubled societies. While this is usually viewed as a short-term model, due to citizens in such states having less influence than in traditional liberal democracies (McCaffrie and Akram, 2014). Some researchers have opinion that the engagement of the citizens with the political issues ought to be limited with their participation in the process of only voting in order to represent their electorates (Kioupkiolis, 2017). According to this view, after selecting their delegates, citizens ought to allow them to perform their work of making policies, and not interfering. There is some evidence that procedural elections can be used to control corrupt and greedy leaders, including in the case of Nigeria (Thiery, 2011), but conventional political analyses continue to criticise this approach as an end in itself, and argue for more dynamic and active citizenship to validate the democratic policy making (Ebeling, 2015).

In contrast to the procedural ideology, participatory democracy focuses on the achievement of active engagement among the citizen participants and democratic responsibility or accountability (Ebeling, 2015; Peters, 2016). This essentially reiterates the basic logic of strong democratic systems and democratic societies with dynamic, active citizenship engagement that can prevent or overcome poor democratic governance problems (Honneth, 1998; McCaffrie and Akram, 2014). Participatory democracy is predicated on the opinion that political resolutions or decisions are taken as a result of consultative political discussions (and other processes) that support relations between citizens and elected delegates, with a healthy atmosphere of civil awareness (Honneth, 1998; Gunn, 2015). However, the benefits of participatory democracy are difficult to realise in the complex modern societies in a globalized world economy, with mixed populations characterised by separatist subcultures and decreasing ur-

banisation is making the achievement of a participatory democratic society seem unrealistic (Ercan and Dzur, 2016, p. 11).

According to Jackson (2015), democratic participatory theories suggest that citizens of states desire to engage in political processes. However, Peters and Ujomu-Olatunji (2014, 2016) noted that some citizens might decline to engage effectively in political issues and may prefer to avoid noticing or pay attention in a furtive democratic system in which elected delegates make policies for them, which absolves them of the necessity to spend their resources on political action. In a period of low levels of formal political participation in acceptable democratic governments, the theory seems to relate more closely to the reality of 21st-century societies than the model of participatory democratic government (De Minico, 2013).

While empirical evidence suggests that many individuals are not interested and are indifferent towards political issues, favouring a procedural democracy model, in such systems elected delegates will have more scope to abuse the authority that is accorded to them by an inert, apolitical population (De Minico, 2013, p269). Even when citizens actively engage in elections, these are often followed by long time periods in which elected delegates activities may not be checked (Ercan and Dzur, 2016, p.2). Nevertheless, McCaffrie and Akram (2014, p.8) argues about the doubtful demand for a participatory society, as it does not persuasively challenge the supporting logic for empowering active or dynamic political engagement (Bowler et al., 2003; Stiglitz, n.d.).

Deliberative democratic government, aiming to improve collective decision making, is the transformation of the ideals proposed by supporters of the participatory democratic government in the 1970s (Vabo and Aars, 2013). It is a philosophical thought that has been developed over many years in response to the seemingly deficiencies of modern liberal democratic government (Moss, 2011; Theis, 2016). Attempts by politicians to surround their party-political issues with celebrity endorsements are assumed to be failing in the promotion of genuine engagement. And are in fact further alienating citizens from engaging in political

dialogue by emphasising the theatrical, non-participative nature of modern politics (Kosterina, 2016). The necessity for a new kind of political engagement to handle these matters is fundamental to the deliberative democratic system, which urges citizens to debate and deliberate about political matters in an informal way (Balestri, 2013; Campbell, 2013; Emery, 2016).

The significance of this structure is in increasing the quality instead of the quantity of engagement, in contrast to participatory democratic systems (Kosterina, 2016, p.6). Nevertheless, beliefs vary incredibly among supporters of deliberative democracy concerning how to execute, implement and evaluate the achievement of deliberations (Moss, 2011; Campbell, 2013; Theis, 2016). Furthermore, these concerns support the significant criticism of deliberative democratic government. Hauptmann (2004) argues that the needs it places on equality and logical agreement are not realistic (Crick, 2014; Jackson, 2015). For instance, Crick (2014) asserted that deliberation within citizenship can be profitable for increasing the quality of democratic government and policy making, as it stresses formal methods, which can exclude a lot of potential members. Therefore, rather than enhancing access to engagement it conceivably promotes inequality in the system.

In reaction to this, Crick (2014) recommends that informal deliberative methods frame the routes that are intended to enhance the co-operation among political representatives and citizenship. Crick (2014, p.353) accepted the claims of McCaffrie and Akram (2014) by acknowledging their concerns that some of citizens would choose not to be politically included. However, he did not concur that political engagement would not become attractive to citizens in general. Crick (2014, p.354) proposed the use of lay public (non-professionals) in government to introduce citizens to political participation through approaches to which they can relate.

Given the premise that dynamic or active engagement is integral to a democratic system, deliberative democracy needs less quantity of engagement than participatory democracy while

being comprehensive and inclusive of its basic provisos. Deliberative democracy thus strikes a persuasive balance between participatory theories of a democratic system and the characteristics of liberal democratic based systems that form the legacy and default model in most practical contexts (Deveaux, 2016).

1.8 Models of Democracy in Practice

According to Bua (2017), the pattern of government and non-governmental practice around citizenship engagement has been progressively supportive toward participatory components over established deliberative structures of democracy. These seem directly in reaction to the perceived low levels of political meeting, enrolment and voter turnout, especially prevalent in connection to YPE.

Bua (2017, p.168) remains uncertain of the YPE persuasiveness of the hierarchical structure initiatives organised by NGOs and the federal government. For example, a study by Doldor (2014) discovered that although the YP who were engaged in the Councils turned out to be significantly politically co-ordinated, the ability of the scheme to include non-politically engaged YP was limited. Similar criticisms have been made on initiating and energising enthusiasm among YP during election campaigns (Doldor, 2014; Felicetti, 2014). Crick (2014) commented on that formal projects developed to expand engagement are often challenging regarding membership resources, implying that individuals who are willing to engage require time and awareness. However, this is a general issue, and does not equalise the imbalance between those willing to engage and those who are passive.

The questions about the ideal approach to motivate and improve YPE are especially significant to the circumstances of newer democratic settings, such as in Nigeria (Tonge and Mycock, 2009). Nevertheless, these are represented in a hierarchical structure and frequently demonstrated in the global stages of organisations that means that they are likely to be

available to YP who are willingly engaging, and they are not enhanced toward outreach to passively disengaged YP (Thiery, 2011, p.89).

This is particularly challenging in the post-military context of modern Nigeria, where the functions of political engagement in supporting the current democratic system remain a topic of civil argument (Dommett, 2015). The procedure of democratisation since the change of military government in 1999 has meant that the structures or institutional features of democratic government are now set up (Vetter, 2009). Thus, the lack of citizen engagement raises doubts about how Effective this democratic government is with regard to accountability and the responsibility of elected representatives in local and national authorities (Diemer and Li, 2011; Osumah, 2016).

1.9 Political Participation and Democratization

The democratic transition from military administration in Nigeria after 1999 created a large number of administrative regions (including NDN), which sought to find ways to implement the structures of institutional democratic liberal government across the country (Jackson, 2015, p.2). This has been accompanied by a renewed discussion concerning the extent to which political engagement is important for an effective working democratic government system (Andrews, 2008; Buser, 2013). Research in this field has sought to determine the accomplishment of democratisation in every region through evaluating the implementations of a deliberative and procedural feature of democratic government. In terms of features such as free and fair elections, structure and institutional building, it has become progressively evident regardless of the presence of these important democratic establishments, the quality of democratic government over Nigerian regions differs significantly (Obadare, 1999; Andrews, 2008; Alozieuwa, 2012; Ikeji et al., 2013; Tuazon, 2013). Therefore, works concerned with evaluating democratic government consolidation on a procedural basis have been criticised

by Ohiole and Ojo (2014), Sam-Okere (2015), and Onyekachi (2016).

The important point is that the emphasis of consolidation on the result instead of the process means it associated with the multi-party voting with democratic government. While disregarding the need for a more level and balanced democratic government system with extended citizenship engagement. Studies on citizenship engagement in modern democratic governments observed that citizenship must extend beyond formal forms of political engagement. For example, voting in general elections for political parties, and also include informal structures such as demonstrations and political protest or advocacy movements (Bevir, 2011; Taghizadeh, 2015; Edegoh and Anunike, 2016) and the inclusion of interest groups (Kluver and Spoon, 2014; Basil and Bassey, 2015).

Despite the fact that procedural democratic government was implemented in Nigeria, it lacked responsibility, accountability, and indeed true representation of the electorate by delegates (Reeves, 2016). According to Basil and Bassey (2015) The accountability of politicians has prompted scholars to re-examine the connection between political engagement and democratisation. Furthermore, to begin to evaluate the quality of the democratic system in Nigeria, considering the scope of possible criteria, including but not limited to those presented in articles on consolidation democracy (Bevir, 2011). Contrasting research advocating consolidation, the research on the quality of democracy is concerned with procedures of democratisation rather than its results (Ita-Imoh, 2014; Kluver and Sagarzazu, 2015). Similarly, in seeing the existence of institutions of democratic government, and how viable these are in ensuring responsibility and accountability, supporting engagement and continuously enhancing political and socio-economic equality (Adejumo and Kehinde, 2007; Gherghina, 2013).

As the extended criteria applied by the quality democracy, dynamic or active political engagement by citizens is often observed as a significant model of better democratic government (Adejumo and Kehinde, 2007; Ita-Imoh, 2014; Kluver and Sagarzazu, 2015). Nkechi and Matiki (2014, 2008) observed that quality democratic government is characterised by cit-

izenship engagement extending beyond elections to the life of political meetings and civil society associations in debates on public issues. Along with responsibility and accountability of voted representatives and observed representation in authorities and direct participation on issues of concern at the grassroots level.

Considering the significance of the diversity and the connections between citizenship and delegates in this view, it becomes clear that this democratic method is beyond the procedural base indicators. Utilised by some accounts of democratic government consolidation, and it tries to find common ground with supporters of the participatory system. Irrespective of its broad nature, the quality or standard of democracy has been effectively utilised by researchers who have drawn up classifications of various types of democratic government (Gaffney and Marlowe, 2014; Reeves, 2016). This can be presented by the application of the quantitative approaches in order to indicate the level to the federal government of Nigeria has implemented a procedural democratic system, instead of measuring the unpredictable nature of connections among citizenship and the government (Udoffia and Godson, 2016).

Some researches (Marien, Hooghe and Quintelier, 2010; Teney and Hanquinet, 2012; Kim, 2013; McAllister, 2016) revealed less about the links between political engagement and the procedures of the democratisation, and depending on the information that assesses the quantity of the political participation in every region as compared to the national level. That does not yield detailed data about regional and age factors involved in particular political engagement patterns within the general procedures of democratisation in Nigeria (Umejei, 2015). Comprehending how and why YP engage or withdraw from politics is necessary for consolidating the quality of democratic government. Research in established democratic government systems has observed that the political involvement of YP often varies from that of the older individuals or identities and that the failure on the part of governments to recognise their involvement can prompt sentiments of estrangement and exclusion (Adejumo and Kehinde, 2007; Kluver and Sagarzazu, 2015; Taghizadeh, 2015). Hence, this can present a gap in the correspondence between citizenship and decision makers and undermines the respon-

siveness of policy to citizens needs. These are the main considerations for enhancing quality democracy (Nkechi, 2014; Bassey, 2015). Politics in modern democratic governments seem less inclusive of YP than those in established democratic systems (Freeman, 2013; Komarek, 2015; Gaby, 2016; Jorgensen and Andersen, 2016). Citizenship engagement in post-military populations is particularly poor, and it is not clear whether such non-participation stems from the basic political, socio-economic modifications caused by democratisation or the patterns of YPE observed in standard (established) democratic systems. This is a question that needs to be clarified so that decision makers can respond to the necessities of YP in a modern democratic government system and accordingly enhance the nature and quality of democratic government in Nigeria (Katsina, 2016).

1.10 The Contextual Study of Young People's Political Participation

YP engage with or have an interest in politics in various ways that may differ from senior citizens, and particular theoretical and methodological difficulties have emerged in the field of YPE (Lohmann, 2003). According to Rosen (2014), the basic concern is the questions of YP nonparticipation in formal forms of political engagement and recognising alternative approaches to YP political participation.

1.10.1 Restructuring Young Peoples Political Participation in Conventional Democracy

Research on political engagement in conventional democratic systems has long observed that age is significant in considering the clarity and the probability of a person becoming politically involved (Dare, 2014). Hence, being youthful or old relates to a lesser probability of going

out and voting, attending political meetings or joining political parties (Gavray, Fournier and Born, 2012; Lorenzini and Giugni, 2012; Pachi and Barrett, 2012; Chavez, 2014; McCaffrie and Akram, 2014; Ujomu and Olatunji, 2014).

In modern times the gap between younger and older voters has observably broadened in many traditional democratic systems (Gavray, Fournier and Born, 2012; Ladner and Fiechter, 2012; Dare, 2014). Furthermore, research on political participation in parties or enrolment has observed that YP enrolment has reduced drastically worldwide (Chavez, 2014; McCaffrie and Akram, 2014). Interestingly, research has proposed a more important tendency for YP to engaged in formal forms of political engagement (for example, demonstrations and volunteering) compared to older generations (Libman and Obydenkova, 2013; Falange, 2014; Lafont, 2014). The ideal that age matters in political engagement is unquestionable, although it is considerably more complex to achieve consensus on what effects it has (Linda and Karlsson, 2013).

The traditional clarifications of lower turnout and party enrolment among YP concentrate on life-cycle issues, essentially positing that YP are too busy with education, seeking employment, housing or raising a family to get involved in political activities (Marien, Hooghe and Quintelier, 2010; Teney and Hanquinet, 2012; Kim, 2013; McAllister, 2016).However, all of these life dimensions are heavily politicised (e.g. student loans/ access to education, unemployment etc.) and it could be argued that they should rather increase YPE rather than decrease it.

Others have argued that YP are more flexible than senior people in terms of their ideological identity, which limits them from getting involved with specific groups or communities of ideological affiliation, such as political movements and parties. Kam (2012) focused on the sentiments of weakness among YP engendered by financial deficiencies and unemployment, and their impact on YPE (Arbache, 2014). The argument is that if the underlying personal issues facing YP are unsettled, they will be unlikely to engage. Thus, this is because of the

accessible resources to them when it comes to money, training or education, time and awareness. This clarification can consequently be utilised to account for the ambigous approach in electorate participation and party enrolment, whereby political engagement is higher among middle-aged people (Norris, 2012).

According to Stelmakh (2015), researchers continue to search for proof to sustain life-cycle clarifications (Norris, 2012), this ideal also experience some limitations. Firstly, it neglects to account for the general decrease in electorate turnout and party participation in traditional democratic systems (Diemer and Li, 2011Henn and Foard, 2013; Johnson, 2014; Gherghina and Geissel, 2017). Because a higher number of individuals are neglecting to join or participate in conventional types of political engagement as they reach at their middle age, which indicates that either the life-cycle clarifications are not effective or the conventional democracy is declining. Accordingly, observers have emphasised that there are basic generational issues at stake (Eckstein, Noack and Gniewosz, 2012; Hope, 2015; Wauters, 2016). This means that social and demographic changes in politics over time affect engagement of the generations in various ways (Malka et al., 2012).

The higher level of the changes in demography and social setting in conventional democratic governments have meant that the limit between where youth ends and adulthood begins (typically during the age period of 16-19 years in most cultures) has turned out to be increasingly unnoticed (Johnson, 2014). Usually, adulthood coincided with exiting education, beginning work or employment and commencing a family life (Brochard and Letablier, 2017). According to McAtee and Wolak (2011), in modern times, individuals often remain in education for an extended period, facing more insecurities of employment, beginning family life later and often being very versatile in their lifestyle options. Brochard and Letablier (2017, p.31) claimed that these issues delay adulthood and thus indicate that the changes or modification in political engagement anticipated by life-cycle effects are deferred, or indeed do not occur at all (McAtee and Wolak, 2011; Laurison, 2016). The most fundamental explanation for the decrease in political participation is the changing natures of politics and of citizens themselves

(McAtee and Wolak, 2011; Eckstein, Noack and Gniewosz, 2012; Stelmakh, 2015; Wauters, 2016). McAtee and Wolak (2011) emphasised the growing professional skills and hierarchical structure of modern politics that has limited connectivity between citizenship and political agents, making parties and political agents remote and unconnected to the regular encounters of citizenship.

Wauters (2016) argues that this developed political culture has affected the political engagement of YP (McAtee and Wolak, 2011; Stelmakh, 2015). This can be seen in a study of four different generations of electors across the six elections in Canada (Stelmakh, 2015). Johnson (2014) observed that even though life-cycle impacts account for the low tendency of YP to vote, the modification approach was more persuasive, in which the social-political culture caused YP to have low interest in political issues and rendered them unwilling to vote. This observation was upheld by similar research in the US arguing that the connections between politicians and citizenship have weakened youthful voters engagement, and have particularly marginalised YP (McAtee and Wolak, 2011; Wauters, 2016).

Laurison (2016) argues that in addition to being overlooked by political agents, YP political annexes have weakened, reducing the possibility and magnitude of YP representation in political parties (Skelton, 2010). This is partly due to technological developments and improved communication, which mean political parties are less dependent on grassroots and junior members (e.g. campaigning at the local level in terms of door-to-door canvassing), and parties prefer to focus on their dormant supporters among other characteristics and older generations, particularly middle-aged voters. This supports the observations of Eckstein, Noack and Gniewosz (2012, p.487), whose study of first-time voters in America observed that the main explanation for non-engagement was modifications in the culture of politics, based on which they concluded that some respondents observed political agents as unreliable and unaccountable to the needs of youth.

In accounting for lower engagement in customary types of political activity (e.g. voter turnout

and volunteering in party activities), political-cultural modifications have been referred to as an explanation for increased participation by YP in informal types of engagement (McAtee and Wolak, 2011; Norris, 2012; Laurison, 2016; Wauters, 2016). YP are viewed as representing a cadre with different approaches to political values, whose inherent nature makes them responsive to informal forms of engagement involving volunteering, political issues and civil society movements. The observations of these studies demonstrate the basic shift of emphasis in the discussion on YPE in conventional democratic governments. Even though life-cycle impacts do play a role in the lower tendency of YP to participate in customary types of engagement, Eckstein, Noack and Gniewosz (2012, p.490) also observed that political cultural modifications have altered the manners in which the most youthful cohorts relate with political issues per se. Furthermore, many scholars argue that traditional indices of political activity are not the end of politics in itself, and YP are not unresponsive or uninterested in political issues themselves, rather they are distanced from formal political issues and formats. These conflicting views of YPs lower engagement with formal political activity form the basis for the indifference versus estrangement explanations of low YPE (McAtee and Wolak, 2011; Eckstein, Noack and Gniewosz, 2012; Stelmakh, 2015).

1.10.2 Indifference versus Estrangement

Established democratic systems present a growing disparity between well-known conversations (popular discourse) and qualitative findings on the non-participation of YP in political issues (Marien, Hooghe and Quintelier, 2010; Wauters, 2016). The media propagate the view that YP are indifferent toward politics and the political class themselves to explain decreasing rates of engagement with formal political structures (Wauters, 2016, p.2). In contrast, qualitative research exploring how YP feel about political issues has observed that YP are concerned with politics, but they are estranged from formal political issues; both views have substantial evidence to support their claims (Rosen, 2014, p.149).

The challenges to the approach of popular discourse and qualitative research is that it permits a little space for the coexistence of indifference and estrangement through which YP may show qualities of political indifference along with those of political marginalisation. The second challenge with this argument emerges when it is related to comprehending the motivations for YP being engaged with informal types of political engagement. In understanding disengaged YP as being turned off from formal political activities because of the sentiments of disaffection and demotion instead of indifference. It seems logical to assume that these YP are rather becoming more engaged with other kinds of political engagement, which they observe to be more inclusive, accessible and related to their regular day-to-day existences and experiences (Marien, Hooghe and Quintelier, 2010).

Even if participation in informal types of political engagement has improved among YP in traditional democratic governments, the informal links between this and isolation from formal political activities is merely assumed (Thornton, 2000). YP who participate in such informal types of engagement often initiate small, active associations or groups and could become engaged for various purposes, of which dissatisfaction with existing political structures is only one example (Hope, 2015). In other words, some YP informal political engagement may be a response to their disengagement from formal politics, but not all can be assumed to be of this type. In the case of NDN, such associations or groups may be viewed as representing or speaking the voices of the minority of YP in the NDN society, who are inclined to become engaged in public activities instead of remaining in the inactive majority. Furthermore, Vetter (2009, p.127) found that to study YPE it is important to carry on an appraisal of either engagement and disengagement in order to unpack the complex web of impacts and enthusiasms driving participation and non-participation decisions (Tonge and Mycock, 2009, p.188).

1.10.3 Explaining Young People's Political (Non-) Participation in Modern Democracies

YP in the modern democratic systems of Nigeria are less politically involved than the YP in traditional democratic systems, which has caused concern among CSOs and NGOs (Lohmann, 2003, p.315). The concern about non-participation seems to comprise the formal forms of engagement, such as electorate and political party activities, thus it extends to participation in informal types of engagement (Chung, 2012; Elliot, 2016; Hansen, 2016; Osei and Malang, 2016). Furthermore, poor YPE in NDN can be attributed to the level of political involvement in the post-military era in Nigeria, wherein electoral participation has decreased since the first election in the mid-1990s. Party enrolment was weak, and extensive activism in the form of protest and demonstrations and civil organisations was lacking. This means that the patterns of YPE in modern democratic government are a product of a post-military elements or those influencing YP in established or traditional democratic governments, or a mixture the two (Doldor, 2014, p.15031).

According to Adam, Delis and Kammas (2011), literature on political engagement patterns in modern democratic governments is primarily concerned with the trends of the populace, with little respect for various age groups. However, the clarifications presented by this research can be utilised as a start of comprehensive analysis of YPE patterns. Clarifications for wide-range political nonparticipation in modern democratic systems often centre on the substantial-scale changes to political and economic issues brought about in society due to a transition from militarization to democratic government (Giacomantonio, 2012). Particularly, citizenship dissatisfaction with laissez-faire (free market) reforms (i.e. the political economy of neoliberalism), instability (or indeed stability) in politics, government and corruption factors. Which are believed to cause dissatisfaction among citizens and thwart the expectations of political agents, policy makers and electorate representatives (Iwuchukwu, 2011; Karp, 2012; Meyer and Schoen, 2015).

Similarly, the experiences of the dictatorship, one-party system and militarism itself are also assumed to have contributed to growing distrust of political agents, representatives and parties. In the context of such factors, many individuals and identities are turned off from elections and party activities that they do not see as worthwhile or representative of their interests, and they consequently lack enthusiasm to attend formal political activities, public gatherings or even informal protest movements and volunteering activities (Karp, 2012; Morrill and Webster, 2015).

1.11 Effects of Post-Military Regime Period

The massive reform in the political climate of Nigeria and its economy after 1999 can be viewed as constituting a period impact, defined by Norris (2012) as a specific major historical occasion with a conclusive effect on all citizens at a certain point. Established democratic systems have experienced periods of effect as well, for example the political and societal reforms demonstrated by the outcome of the economic recession in 2008 (Muhumuza, 2016). However, these do not have the same effect in all cases and for all citizens (Wunsch and Olowu, 1996), and by the end of the military regime and the transformation to a democratic government in Nigeria, democratisation in the post-military government meant the improvement and development from scratch of institutions needed for party engagement, political interest by citizens, a multi-party-political framework, free voting and civil society associations (Stoyanova, 2016).

This represents an inversion of the means by which traditional or established democratic governments were shaped during the 19th century, during which parties and different associations or organisations were developed as an answer to societal requests and needs rather than being instituted (or indeed imposed) from above within a hierarchical political structure. In Nigeria, the elite focused on reactions to the requirements of a procedural democratic

government system (Kifordu, 2011; Okpanachi and Obutte, 2015). While procedural democracy can be driven by a genuine interest in democratisation, it can also be commandeered by political opportunism in order to consolidate political power and/ or control over resources among political entrepreneurs, a scenario named democratisation degenerate by Okpanachi and Obutte (2015, p.258).

In the Nigerian case, this is manifest in political gatherings in a modern democratic government system characterised by an urban elite class of leadership with little enthusiasm for assembling mass members (Cornell, 2013). Similarly, CSOs, however productive in the initial stage of post-military democracies, do not have widespread grass-roots enrolment (Ibrahim, 2013; Blanco, 2015). Furthermore, the absence of regular political engagement is also seen to have an adverse impact on voter engagement. Whereby citizens often recognise separation among their personal lives and the institutions, and they do not think that their inclusion can make any substantive or positive impact (Adebisi, 2014).

The important political and social-economic reforms of the post-military era have affected the political engagement patterns of citizens in Nigeria. However, little is known regarding how and if these reforms have impacted on political engagement patterns of age groups in different ways. This question had been overlooked by extant, as regards studies on post-military YP in Nigeria. As such, studies tend to focus on the impacts of social and economic reforms rather than seeking to understand political impacts and implications of YPE and political inclusion.

Due to their engagement in the fall of the military regime, it seems that the conduct of YP was initially observed as a test for how democracy and political engagement may have being shaped in the NDN region and other regions in Nigeria (Park, 2013; Korzenevica, 2016). In time, YP stopped presenting signs of mobilisation, demonstration, and civil mobilisation, and the enthusiasm for their engagement tendencies appeared to have been reduced (Rosen, 2014; Nikotin, 2016).

In view of the rapid nature of social-economic and political reforms in modern democratic governments, research on the early post-military period has yielded scant data on the interactions of YP in Nigeria in the 21st century (Cusack, 1999; Hubscher, 2016). Since the political associations of the present youthful cohort have occurred in the context of Nigeria instead of the military and early democratic modification. Current data as needed on whether trends identified in YPE in traditional democratic governments are noticeable in the modern (newer) democratic governmental system of NDN, and if so, how these patterns and impacts can be compared and understood.

According to Bamgboye (2014), existing research on YP under the post-military regimes in Nigeria has tended to concentrate more on social-economic situations of YP and to a lesser degree on how they politically engage (Africa Research Bulletin, 2010a; Skelton, 2010; Nikotin, 2016). Clearly the social and economic dimensions of YP experience are pertinent to YPE, but this study is targeted to the latter per se, and insight into their political engagement will be useful for social science-oriented research studies. Furthermore, a recent research Mofoluwawo (2015) observed that YP occupy a distinct position regarding social-political life in the post-military period in Nigeria, which entails that they are often in a lower socio-economic status and prevented from exploiting opportunities (Stelmakh, 2015; Moses EU, 2016).

YP are often confronted by a higher level of economic uncertainty than other age groups, however they are also better positioned to take advantage or exploit employment and entrepreneurship, and they often have more adaptability and better education than other cohorts (Akpan, 2017). This complicated situation of relative privilege and general disadvantage forms the backdrop of political engagement patterns of YP in Nigeria. In general, the social-economic uncertainties they face entail that they have fewer resources, such as time and money, to engage in political issues, while their relative adaptability or flexibility and their educational levels may likewise possibly have the inverse impact on their accessibility and motivation to participate in politics (Gorozidis and Papaioannou, 2014).

1.11.1 The Military Legacy

According to Eichler (2014), the core argument used to account for the lack of dynamic or active political engagement in the post-military period was based on the role of the military government legacies of political culture, which emphasises behaviours shaped by encounters or experiences under the military regime that have negative effects on political engagement (Africa Research Bulletin, 2010a; Skelton, 2010; Nikotin, 2016).

Firstly, it is important to explain the role that official political engagement had under the military government in Nigeria. These was a one-party system, which mounted a pretence of democratic government, perpetuated or preserved by the holding of non-competitive elections and the reality of a massive selection of military-led social organisations (Amuwo, 2009). Engagement in these elections and organisations was often the consequence of pressure. The after effect of this was that the military administration tried to permeate some aspects of citizenship, either in public or private (Gurbuz, 2009).

Eichler (2014, p.7) distinguished this delay period of necessary political engagement as a vital factor in the decision of YP to withdraw from political inclusion during the post-military period of contention. Leaving citizens unconvinced by the role of CSOs, this experience often causes people to withdraw into their own private systems of loved ones (friends and family) for identity and support associated with political affiliations in traditional democracies (Amuwo, 2009; Giacomantonio, 2012; Park, 2013; Bamgboye, 2014).

The role of military legacies in influencing political engagement patterns in Nigeria is convincing, and there is basis to believe that the significance of this factor differs depending on the age group. Solt (2008) stressed that generational replacement might be one of the main causes of YPE decreasing due to the impacts of military legacies (Ruhl, 1982; Babatunde, 2015; Kingsley, 2013). This is based on the argument that unless the major part of the population comprises youthful citizens who have been socialised with democratic government, the

experience or encounters under the military continue to shape political engagement, which seems to be the case in Nigeria (Kingsley, 2013). Babatunde (2015, p.7) notified that generational replacement is a slow-moving and difficult process, and even if the YP may have had no immediate involvement in the military structure, individuals who did, such as guardians and educators (Solt, 2008, p.50) will probably affect them. In this manner, the patterns of political engagement attitude induced by the military structure may remain and replicate themselves for quite a while (Ayissi, 1999).

The lack of intensive research on YPE in post-military administration in Nigeria means that there is limited understanding of the role military legacies could play in affecting YPE. Babatunde (2015, p.6) particularly highlighted the need for YP oriented research, emphasising that given the quick-changing conditions in Nigeria, this exploration ought to continue to identify new patterns in YPE. In the post-military period YP are politically socialised through the military structure, for example YP associations or organisation.

The different opinion of this group in the post-military society entails that their political participation pattern, suggests an important resource for analysing the connections of the enduring impacts of the military and post-military political transformations. As well as the potential meetings of political engagement patterns with those observed in traditional democratic government. This age groups distinctive position in post-military society therefore needs further analysis (Ramsbotham, 1992), which is the focus of this research.

1.11.2 The Framework for Political Engagement Patterns of the New Post-Military Regime Cohort

The participant group within this research YP are aged 18-26 in NDN. As some of the oldest of the group were still young (12-17) at the fall of military government, they have had experience of military-political socialisation through YP organisations and military supported

media. Thus, they appear to be the first to have profited from the extensive privileges or opportunities offered by an enlarged United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (Ebener, 1990). In some ways, this cohort could be said to be the first true post-military generation in Nigeria (Ejiogu, 2011, p.1). Thus, this places the current generation of YP in a distinct position that separates them from other cohorts in post-military Nigeria. However, it does not mean that they essentially share the attributes of their cohort in the traditional (established) democratic system of government.

While they did encounter or experience military regime firsthand, they may have been politically associated or socialised in a period of strong social-economic and political instability. This period was where behaviours regarding political engagement acquired from the military era exist together with economic and social-political insecurities caused by the post-military changes (Sela and Maksuti, 2015). It is extremely hard to anticipate how this YP generation will politically engage and how the differentiating impacts from older generations and wider Nigerian trends in YP political participation influence on their engagement patterns in NDN.

Therefore, in order to address the question of how this post-military generation in NDN engages in political issues and how it contrasts with previous generations with regard to political inclusion in the traditional (established) democratic system. This study utilises a framework structured by Hoffmanns (2010) theoretical construct of voice, and loyalty and exit were drawn up by Nikotin (2016). These ideas can give a valuable method for interpretative-based research into YPE.

The Hoffmann (2010, p. 57) framework is especially appropriate for this research due to its capacity to consolidate sociological, political science and economics methods. To deal with and recognise political institutions or personal decisions to engage politically or withdraw from participation. However, this framework was mainly developed from economics, and Hoffmann (2010, p.59) did not consider the strict use of rational choice method to deal with and comprehend individual engagement (Kingleys, 2013; Klar, 2013; Doldor, 2014, 2017).

Where an individual chooses to engage or withdraw are dependent on a cost-benefit analysis, the profits of engagement must exceed any expenses incurred (Finlay and Flanagan, 2013; Kim and Kroeger, 2017). Therefore, this method argues that people or individuals who decide to engage in political issues do so because participation is judged to be in favour of their self-interest or advantage (Dare, 1981).

This economic approach to comprehending engagement has various inadequacies (Finlay and Flanagan, 2013; Kim and Kroeger, 2017). Firstly, the rational decision method does not consider the likelihood those characteristics (people or individual) choices may be imparted by the public around them (Horesh, 1978; Finlay and Flanagan, 2013). The disparity with the perspectives of some sociologists argue that extensive social-cultural and societal patterns are important in comprehending identity (individual or people) behaviour (Pacces, 2016). Secondly, some argue that an identity cannot make an informed rational choice, and the level of embeddedness in extensive society entails that despite the appearance of rationality, decisions are often determined for participants (Horesh, 1978). Nonetheless, in dismissing the likelihood for rational decisions completely, this method has likewise been criticised in that focusing on the macro-level oversimplifies and over-emphasises relationships between people and the public (society) around them (Eme and Onjishi, 2014; Goodhart and Oji, 2017).

Some approaches have tried to discover a balance between economic and sociological viewpoints (Pacces, 2016, p.2). For example, Eme (2013) gave an overview of how research progressively joined these two strands to deal with further understanding of relationships between institutions and identity. Basically, rather than arguing that identity (individual) decision (choice) is determined by the public (society) and ignoring the rational decision (choice) completely, they argue that identity (individual) rational choices are influenced by the public (society) (Flew, 2009). Finlay and Flanagan (2013) acknowledged the means by which the rational decision methods can be profitable from obtaining elements of the sociological behavioural methods. Specifically, Finlay and Flanagan (2013, p.2) claimed that understanding the context of political establishments (institutions) is fundamental in relating

how identity (people) come to make informed decisions (choices) of engagement. Therefore, political establishments (institution) may be at first by the rational decisions of individual but are then formed and adjusted by wider trends (Flew, 2009, p.977).

However, Hoffmanns (2010, p.59) structural framework itself essentially sought to blend economic and sociological approaches. Although his original work depended on explaining the contrasting identities (individual) responses to a decrease in product quality, it has been demonstrated to have substantial effectiveness in comparative political issues (Doldor, 2014, 2017). Exit may be comprehended as the choice (decisions) not to purchase a product or to leave an association (organisation). While voice is to speak out or complain against any adjustment in association approaches or organisation plan, sentiments of loyalty to a product or association (organisation) are thought to lessen the probability of exit and improve the probability of voice (Nikotin, 2016). However, the relationship to economic issues is relative, as identity (individual) choices to exit or to utilise voice seems to be the result of rational policy (decisions) making. Furthermore, the framework of Hoffmann (2010, p.60) has been utilised for different political formations to understand the impact of society (public), culture and structure on choices or decisions.

Hoffmann (2010, p.63) presented one instance in utilising his structural framework to investigate the events that prompted the fall military government in Nigeria in 1999. The main historical and structural contrasts amid the military regime and its citizens in NDN meant that the likelihoods for exit and voice varied. Specifically, he emphasised the capacity for individuals in NDN regions to exit Nigeria (emigration). Nonetheless, it was a probability to exit that tested his earlier understanding of the link between exit and voice. Although initial work affirmed this, there was an opposite relationship, whereby likelihoods for exit would perhaps diminish the possibility for voice, and protest and demonstration near the end of the military regime in Nigeria mean that exit and voice were utilised together (Ayissi, 1999, p.7; Nikotin, 2016).

Furthermore, Klar (2013) studied this relationship in a multi-method way to understand the fall of military regime in Nigeria. Lee and Whitford (2015) explained that in the same way to exit through displacement and emigration helped, for this situation, to prompt the voices in Nigeria. Even though voice was higher in cost (in advertisements) than exit (leave), it is often the minimum appealing alternative; Klar (2013) discovered that the social-political settings was important in comprehending why the exit and the voice functioned in a civil way in the Nigerian instance. Lee and Whitford (2015) characterised how strong organisations within the UN were fundamental to the starting and supporting of protest and demonstrations. Although the exit likely outcomes mean that, many individuals might have been influential in enthusiastically exercising voice to move out of Nigeria, these strong informal networks or organisations survived. Stressing the role of organisation and network systems effectively affirms civil society literature founded on sociology to assist in clarifying Hoffmanns (2010, p.67) originally structural framework of economics (Lee and Whitford, 2015).

The capacity to develop Hoffmanns (2010, p.64) structural framework, which consolidates sociological and economic methods to deal with and comprehend identity (individual) choices to engage in political issues, makes it apt for this research, which examines three distinctive types of YPE: voter engagement, party enrolment and participation in informal methods of political engagement. Studies on CSOs have distinctive methods to comprehend participation. While voter engagement has often been comprehended with regard to rational decision or choice, works on CSOs are primarily from sociological perspectives (Flew, 2009, p.980). In utilising a wider framework structure (for example, exit, loyalty and voice), my object is to join the findings of these approaches with a specific end goal, to achieve a good understanding of YPE in NDN. Specifically, this study utilises the framework in identifying the likely compromise between various types of engagementin comparison to the findings with current research on traditional (established) democratic government in Nigeria. My explanation of exit, loyalty and voice and how they relate to the question of YP political participation is as summarised below.

- Exit alludes to the decision made by YP to not only refrain from participation in the traditional types of political engagement, electorate and party enrolment, but to likewise choose not to partake informal structures, for example, contentious political issues and volunteering

- Voice alludes to the decision made by the YP to be engaged in political activities or actions with the goal of transforming the current social policies and ideologies. It appears to take the form of participation in informal methods of engagement, specifically in demonstration or (protest) activities, and may likewise be obvious in the decision to participate in voting (Bootsma, 2013)

- Loyalty alludes to the decision made by YP to involve in customary or traditional types of political engagement, especially by joining political scheming or party

Therefore, the voice, loyalty and exit framework is utilised in the current research of YPE in conventional (established) democratic systems. It can be observed that weak electoral turnout and party enrolment do not necessarily suggest that YP are leaving political life entirely, as noted previously. Hoffmann (2010) argued that rather than quitting political participation entirely, YP could demonstrate concern and awareness for engagement in voice, preferably through methods of engagement, for example contentious political issues and volunteering. This means that there might be relevance between leave (exit) voice and loyalty, whereby YP have an increasingly poor relationship with customary (traditional) political actors and their procedures. This increases the probability of exit from political engagement entirely or on the other hand to exercise voice against conventional political issues, affirming the importance of leave (exit) and voice (Hoffmann, 2010; Klar, 2013; Nikotin, 2016).

In modern democratic governments, as discussed earlier, the older generation also have lower electorate turnout, party enrolment and other structures that utilise voice (Sela and Maksuti, 2015). Nigerian regions are characterised by what seems to be pervasive leave (exit) from all types of political participation or inclusion. However, if it extends to the youth, it will mean

the relevance between leave (exit), loyalty and voice in post-military country like Nigeria may vary significantly from the situation seen in established democratic nations. To decide if this is the situation and to analyse the explanations for identity (individual) choices to engage in politics or to withdraw, it is important to evaluate how distinctive the social-political contexts affect the individual (identity) level of rationale on policy (decision) making.

1.12 Conclusions

This chapter has introduced the fundamental definitions and questions that support the exploration of this study. Specifically, it demonstrated that the employment of a wide definition of political engagement is fundamental to the end goal of achieving comprehension of the interrelations and associations between various methods of political participation. It is particularly applicable to the question of YP political involvement, as YP are observed to have a perception of political issues from their cohort and seem to demonstrate more enthusiasm for informal types of engagement than in conventional approaches. Furthermore, such a comprehensive definition is important to explore political engagement trends in modern democratic government, whereby the presence of dynamic citizenship engagement is especially essential to the enhancement of quality democratic government. Furthermore, this chapter has briefly discussed the political participation of the Young people regarding their decisions to participate in the conventional democratic system or not.

YP are vital to the future of democratisation. Given the absence of existing research on YPE and disengagement in modern democratic governments in Nigeria, it is an issue of higher concern. Situating this study, in the wider context of related academic research. This investigation explores whether the political engagement trends of the youthful post-military regime in NDN follow those of more established eras (older generation) in Nigeria, or if there is confirmation that these are starting to reflect more broad patterns in YP political

inclusion or participation, as in conventional democratic governments. In order to address this question, this study has introduced the structural framework of leave (exit), loyalty and voice. Because, these terms in the context of youth will mean the relevance between leave (exit), loyalty and voice in post-military country like Nigeria may differ significantly from the situation seen in established democratic nations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW ON ENGAGEMENT

2.1 Introduction

This chapter situates this research study by drawing on the literature that has enabled me to focus my writing and shaped the philosophical view that structured my study aims. It discusses the empirical literature relating to the formation of YPE, which is multi-layered and must be analyzed on that basis. Policy documents cite various motivations for YPE, yet there is no known definition or agreement regarding the actual meaning of this in practice.

This chapter demonstrates the method by which contemporary literature considers the concept of YPE employing citizenship drives or agendas while continuing to discuss the debatable

or unresolved issues identified in the literature. This study explores the mechanics of engagement and the different principles, procedures, and models that enable active communication, including the boundaries and values that can hinder or support my particular interpretation, especially relating to how elders and adults relate to or engage with YP in society or democratic systems.

2.2 Rationale for Structuring Young Peoples Engagement

My initial momentum emerges from the broader citizen engagement programs for elders (Radda and Schensul, 2011). Lundasen (2013) considers the significant issues concerning the motivation to enhance democratic engagement and Bang and Sorensen (1999) explore engagement around the process of democracy and how it has developed, concluding with some recommendations on a practiced method to enhance participation in a democratic system of government. Baxter and Haxton (2007) argue that the meaning of affective commitment is more delineated in more established social democratic governments, and UNICEF (2001) articles discuss motivation towards a better representation of democracy that gains support from citizenship engagement employing active community participation.

In June of 2015, I attended a conference concerned with developing a commitment to YPE in organizations and democratic society. The conference provided more emphasis on YP inclusion. The conference offered me an opportunity to receive more insight on the framework of Young People Matters (Bell, Vromen and Collin, 2008), whereby the policy arrangement was to draw towards expanding YP citizenship engagement as manifest in YPs voice in organizations and democratic society. The essential meaning of the conference topic was to inform participants of the participatory program, for them to consider if their association and organizations have the needed structures set up and an adequately skilled staff fit to offer

the required strategic guidance to engage YP in the process of making decisions effectively.

Franklin (2006) suggested attributes of developing a customary teacher or lecturing styles to support student improvement. My research is supported by an assembly of literature concerning the concept of YP and student voice (Franklin, 2006, 2008; Owuamanam and Owuamanam, 2011; Danvers and Gagnon, 2014; Gray, Swain, and Rodway-Dyer, 2014; Kirwan, 2014), through which the student's voice is considered a consultative arm of student engagement.

From these events, I sought to widen my comprehension of the theoretical and conceptual understanding of YP as prospective citizens from the ascent of the theoretical positions of the interpretive and constructivist approach or paradigms as developed by various practitioners and scholars. Table **??** presents some of the main authors upon whose work this study is based. These studies motivated me to deeply explore the position of the UN (1989) and UNICEF (2001) relating to YPE programmes. These were explored by Hart (2008) and Gane (2017) focused on a receptiveness to how YP may see their own encounters in involvement in the decision-making process. I recognised that this was an integral part of my research, which led me to examine a collection of work predominantly conducted in the US relating to theories of adultism (Pascal and Bertram, 2009; Fletcher, 2010; Brett, 2011a, 2011b; Stewart, 2012; Gane, 2017).

As noted previously, in exploring my research I attended and presented some of my research findings at the workshops and seminars run by the FHSCE and debated with some fellow researchers in the University of Anglia Ruskin Graduate School. I also enrolled for summer schools in Chelmsford and Cambridge held by Anglia Ruskin University. These events helped me to see various forms and mechanisms that structure YP in socio-economic and political conditions relative to opportunities, rights, roles and perceptions that differentiate them from elders.

Following completion of my fieldwork, some participants related their own particular anec-

dotal encounters regarding this concept and expressed their eagerness to utilize this idea to illuminate the correspondence of their own particular practice with YP in NDN within the context of my study. I realised that my confidence was growing and developing as my knowledge base increased, improving my ability to discern the kinds of research material I needed to explore. For instance, I decided to avoid economic and corruption-related issues affecting YPE (Rosen, 2014); the related civil education discourse (Kyongjae-Song, 2007); the role of YP in international settings (Whitebeck, Hoyt and Huck, 1993; Hart, 2008); fatherhood marginalisation (Barranti, 1985); and YP restiveness (Induka-Ozo and Igba, 2017). Tables 2.1 and 2.2 summarise the key works used in this research.

Table 2.1: Key works used in this research

Furlong and Cartmel (2007)	
Viewpoints	**Analysis**
Concerned with putting together changing characteristics of young people in society	Macro and micro views of young peoples human capital are similar in society
Davies (2009)	
Viewpoints	**Analysis**
Significantly assessed the development of the conceptual framework of the way young people are seen as becoming and incomplete beings	This view places too much emphasis on young people as asocial agents, with the aim of the learning process relating to reasoning utilised to justify conclusions regarding elders, which is a manifestation of the dominance of power control
Barron (2013)	
Viewpoints	**Analysis**
Reflected on the relationship between social theories and contemporary sociology within the chronological and cultural factors of time and space	Changes over time affect young peoples perceptions and self-perception as elders in future, and the cultural factor of space influences the reality of young people as social agents or actors and challenges the views of young people as incompetent or unskilled
Behtoui (2013)	
Viewpoints	**Analysis**
Young people social theories reflect emerging interest in young people in society with theoretical alternative methods to reconceptualise young peoples place in social formations that emphasise the contribution of young people in socialisation and developing themselves	This is about post-modernity motivations that challenge old rationales, stressing that as modernity develops it focuses on systematic production to serve social consumers. Young people have developed a growing voice in civil society

Table 2.2: Key works used in this research Continued

Charles and Haines(2014)	
Viewpoints	**Analysis**
Promoted the need to review policy, law on and practice on young peoples engagement	Supports the ability of young people as rightful actors with the capability of decision making that will not become a threat to the citizenry and civil society
Westwood et al. (2014)	
Viewpoints	**Analysis**
Considered some case studies and gives instances of the effective application of UNICEF (2001) programmes	This requires balancing the rights of engagement and protection. An active involvement of young people requires a change in the reasoning of elders
Zepke (2014)	
Viewpoints	**Analysis**
Explored research on various sociological approach to young people and also considers the role of young people as socially capable actors	Post-modernity has refused to accept the paradigm of young people as passive beneficiaries of socialisation processes, rather there is an acknowledgment of social capability and the avoidance of areas that separate elders, adults and young people
Dehaghani (2016)	
Viewpoints	**Analysis**
Considered social policies and social theories and case studies exploring the ways culture affects young peoples constructions	Social realities are reflected in legislation, which is essentially bound to involvement and equality, and as such should be seen as changes to participatory rights and cultural encounters

2.3 Theoretical Perspectives

According to Ostmans (2012) belief that protecting YPE (in the democratic involvement of space and organizations as well as in civil society) is a necessary improvement and development of the way society sees the future of YP (Furlong and Cartmel, 2007; Zaalouk, 2013). The patterns used in raising YP demonstrate the societal demeanours to YP and the kind of education that they need.

According to Tamesberger (2016), governments latently return to evasion, figuring out ways in which YP can be useful to the economic situation of the country rather than facilitating genuine engagement, for the benefit of YP themselves. The neoliberal perspective of the modern politicization of YP is apprehensive of economic development at the expense of social equity and sees YP as an important marginalized group requiring the investment of resources for long-term economic growth within a democratic system. The various types of participatory dialogue adumbrated by previous scholar's presented reasons for challenging the current views of the neoliberal position, and for exhibiting that in sustaining engagement effectively YP commitment may give more incentives for making decisions in conferences. Developing YP as stakeholders is not contingent for the importance of future objectives.

The traditional dialogue with young people was based on the social constructive paradigm in the political and the social development dimensions (Silvern and Nakamura, 1971, p.138), which supports the natural development of young people presented by Pronteaus (1972, p.4) supposition of subjective improvement and the belief system of young people within society regarding their connections among policies, social welfare, practice and institutional foundations. YP institutions give an expository structure in comprehending primary comfort in human existence through which YP improvement has a specific structure, comprising various predetermined levels that lead to the possible accomplishment of coherent ability (Silvern and Nakamura, 1971, p.54, p.139). This exploration has significant motivation for social policy and the improvement of the socio-economic plan for young people. Davis (2007)

noted that the relationship is not always substantial when considering the role of traditional, transitional procedures in conferring the adulthood on members of society.

In some traditional principles, such rites were held upon attaining adolescence (typically around 12-16 years old). In pre-modern Africa, adolescent members of most African tribal societies (e.g., aged over 15-18), including women, generally had much more power and authority in those societies than most adult men (most of whom could not vote), and indeed women, in modern (i.e. colonial and postcolonial) society. In simplicity, upon coming of age (which varied among Nigeria's multiple ethnic groups), YP abruptly transitioned from childhood to adulthood, without an intervening adolescence' (Oduntan, 2018). Consequently, I find that the exclusion of YP was inaugurated under colonialism and its ideology and those traditional societies in NDN had more inclusion of YP (i.e., those aged under 16-24), which makes the conflation of YP exclusion from political processes with deference for traditional-age structures in modern Nigerian politics ironic. Analysing the exclusion of YP in national political processes results in unfair marginalisation, and I am persuaded by this perception that elders often consider YP to be juvenile and incompetent, viewing them as irresponsible to be all members of the society, in order to consolidate their monopoly of power and authority in Nigerian society (Davis, 2007).

Furthermore, it is significant to build a conceptual view in the present discussion regarding YP (Silvern and Nakamura, 1971; Davies, 2009; Zepke, 2014; Dehaghani, 2016), as well as to explore the attitudes of YP themselves regarding engagement (Leborgne, 2002; Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014; Westwood et al., 2014), mainly to determine the degree of their political awareness and the level co-operation coming from inside the official debates of organisations, agencies, government offices and policies. It appears that these components of organizational ethos contribute to the social development of YP, based on which Silvern and Nakamura (1971) posited an explanatory structural setting of periods in human life. To me, the literature indicates that YP is a phenomenon that cannot be isolated from the multifaceted matrix of cultural, political, and social affiliations and processes (Leborgne,

2002).

According to Pascal and Bertram (2009), the cornerstone of the advancement of positive, participatory activity with YP is their relationship with elders. This is where the paternalistic ideology of adultism becomes pertinent, manifest in the behaviors, thoughts, attitudes, and activities of elders regarding YP (Sleebos, Ellemers, and De-Gilder, 2006; Pascal and Bertram, 2009; Brett, 2011). Functionally, adultism affects co-operation in political and social development (Stewart, 2012), but there is no particular policy guide, conventional or customary beliefs that can be recognized or attached to adultism, although it is generally acknowledged to pertain to the exclusion of YP. Furthermore, according to Davies (2009, p.70), these impacts inhibit the transfer of YP from the customary society to the arena of a conservative society. Conservative concepts in this context are encouraged in the circle of elders, which neglects to acknowledge YP voices (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014), most obviously entrenched in schools (Feringa and Tonkens, 2017) as well as in local communities and villages.

For Brett (2011, p.6), adultism focuses on the belief that elders appear to see world realities only from a specific viewpoint with regards to their life encounters, which causes them to view YP as insignificant due to their lack of life experience. The conviction that YP is less critical may be demonstrated by extreme possessiveness, support, and nurturing or intolerance, which often result in intentional or unintentional unnecessary control (Pascal and Bertram, 2009). Thus, the lack of support for YP entrenched in adultism is viewed as a misuse of power (James, 2005). In talking about YP and their social and cultural abilities, Bauder (2001, p.7) suggested that it is necessary to comprehend the immense power elders have over YP lives. The amount of impact and authority wielded by elders, irrespective of the encounters, emotions, and views of YP, is manifest in social control, which when combined with the pessimistic impression of YP propagated by the media in contemporary society entrenches adultism. The perception that YP is inexperienced is an aspect that shapes their social personality, and which has been inserted into their mind-set, sometimes affecting their

approaches in life and becoming a self-fulfilling prophecy (Zepke, 2014).

While I acknowledge the challenges and issues that Davies (2009) pointed out in connection to elders and adult perspectives. I am of the view that the impacts of adultism in contemporary society are not as egregious as this theoretical discussion would imply. Furthermore, that within NDN the present socio-cultural aversion to uncertainty, which may intensify the issues of assurance and protection, does not preclude a genuine wiliness for organizations and co-operative actions inclusive of YP. Furthermore, traditional sociological analyses by Silvern and Nakamura (1971) noted that the sociology of YP emphasizes citizenship workers, neglecting to recognize the esteem and values of YP through their virtues. Therefore, these viewpoints affected the approach through which I detailed my research question and the auxiliary points and aims of my study from particular perspectives concerning the means and structures of interactions of engagement among YP in NDN.

2.4 Investment in Young People

According to Teney and Hanquinet (2012), the convictions that inform socio-political investment in YP are an essential part of national wellbeing and development (Teney and Hanquinet, 2012, p.1213-4). The way to empower YP is to engage actively in decisions influencing their lives, which has become complicated due to the paradigm of the sociology of YP (Silvern and Nakamura, 1971). According to Drake, Fergusson, and Griggs (2014) it appears that there is some discrepancy between theory and practice since some of this development is identified with the social ties by which human life and YP are developed or constructed. The conception that YP is characterized by inexperience or immaturity reflects an inevitable biological fact in that humans develop from childhood to adulthood, but how this universal transition is conceptualized is experienced through different cultural structures that may support or suppress YPE (Silvern and Nakamura, 1971, pp.139-42).

In modern industrialized nations, YP is viewed as dependents, support of whom is conditional on their acquiescence in the status quo, i.e., what the elders see as appropriate; consequently, YP find themselves in circumstances of socially protective exclusion (Silvern and Nakamura, 1971). Perrier (1994) argues that the beliefs of elders often undermine the rights of YP that YP does not have the cognitive, enthusiastic and experiential ability to make positive contributions to society or take decisions that will be of advantage to them. Associated behaviors and attitudes in the sociology acknowledge that YP are citizens who have their right to live, and they are phenomenal agents and specialists in their own particular lives (Perrier, 1994; Araya and Kabakin, 2004). The challenge is to develop YP skills acquisition to be useful to all stakeholders. This requires acknowledging that YP has the capability and are equipped to know how to explain their inclinations, wants and needs and also have the capacity to pass on their perspectives about what they accept to be to their most significant advantages and those of others (Wrigley, 2011).

On issues regarding pedagogy, ethics and risks, on customary engagement settings of expressing views, there have been polarizing behaviours among elders, but they now seem to have more deferential consideration for citizenship plans and the development and improvement of education (Driskell and Kudva, 2009). Furthermore, encounters and experience have shown that YP is fit to communicate their viewpoints on issues. Araya and Kabakin (2004) argue that the capacity to voice individual opinions can be reconsidered as a social capability or competence. Hence, there is a critical requirement to support YP ability to express their perspectives on issues unreservedly, through necessary empowerments. Thus, a 17-year-old delegate who attended the United Nations Special Report Session for Young People outlined the general feeling among YP regarding the lack of opportunities available to voice their views:

Elders do not get the point right when young people seen as skilled to support active engagement are? Without giving them the chance to engage, they cannot have the necessary skills needed. Please, permit us the opportunity in time and see how phenomenal we are.

(Howell, 2016, p.5)

This opinion effectively clarifies that YP requires opportunities to express themselves. Over time, this view had gained international support in decision-making conferences, and Kofi Annan when he was the General Secretary of the UN remarked that elders should be helped to remember their commitment to evoke and consider the perspectives of YP when making decisions that will influence their lives and wellbeing (Howell, 2016). Some of this commitment requires elders to endeavor to be proactive in considering the views of YP. Elders must enable YP to construct and develop their capabilities and competence toward genuine and significant engagement. To accomplish this, elders must develop new abilities in themselves, and governments should endeavor to fulfill their words that YP voices are to be heard to ensure active engagement and to construct a reasonable future (Howell, 2016).

2.5 Young People's Voices

The consideration of YP voices is not new, but the particular ways in which this can be implemented are complex and debatable, arising from a:

> *Dynamic imperativeness and principled uprightness from acclimated dialogue amongst educators and studentship and a combined acknowledgment of a mutual responsibility regarding the consistency and value of its pragmatic outcomes. (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014, p.7)*

Pantea (2015) noted the concerned and crucial role of formal education, viewed it as an essential requirement in the way formal training ought to be seen as supporting intergenerational training and learning, which is focal to life in a democratic society (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014). In the democratic system domain of YP participation in NDN the concept of YP voices encapsulates a significant scope of work under the overlapping topic of

student voice (Storsul, 2014), whereby YP are required to academically and socio-politically advocate being heard by elders through some instructing, lecturing, teaching, learning and training procedures (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014). For instance, YP might be developed through schools giving them the privilege of working as a group with instructors or teachers with the goal of forming a better learning village.

In wider development, student voice is part of counselling YPE within the educational environment, so YP will have the chance to be effectively associated with community-oriented courses with peers, instructors or teaches in other to help learn and train in addressing challenging issues (Prior, 2012). This acknowledges that the voice of students is only in the educational points of view, orientated to centre on YP knowledge and acquired experience related to education and democracy (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014). Positive YPE is about enhancing their learning abilities by looking for guidance, welcoming critique and learning to evaluative perceptions from academic perspectives.

To understand YP perspectives, they must be given a voice by participating with them, which in the Nigerian context has been experienced in a delegated socio-political democratic system, with attention to improving YP comprehension and consciousness of regional initiatives in a democratic system. Advanced support for social equity in a democratic socio-political program may challenge the power dynamic in paired relations between elders, teachers, and YP or students. Drake, Fergusson, and Griggs (2014, p.5-6) described the philosophy of teaching as fellowship democratic society.' They considered that engaging YP or students by active engagement are a fundamental role of academic curriculums or programs, where the student's voice remains relevant in various activities that take place in the school environment and life. They emphasized that student inclusion encourages quality leadership in the administration and school advancement towards intergenerational training and learning, a focal theme in a democratic society.

Dincer and Dincer (2016) argue that the social development of the academic environment is

focused on offering a controlled space in which YP and students can prosper using researching, self-articulation, and expression. The parental nature of bonding between students or YP and teachers in the school context demonstrates and permeates social conformity. However, this can be argued to reiterate paternalism, potentially compromising its value an instrument to empower the YP advancement to rationality by self-articulation and expression (Dincer and Dincer, 2016, p.5). Treseder (1997) argued that this idea does not consider student or YP engagement as power for social change because the connection amongst student and teacher is viewed as a kind of pastoral force instituted for the pedagogical aim of shaping YP or students to be rational elders or adults in future.

Davies (2009, p.45) suggested that there seem to be slow acknowledgment of students status as personalities in the academic space and as active and dynamic student learners; in this philosophical viewpoint, students are viewed as active becoming, which entrenches a lack of esteem for the results of YPE in decision-making in social development or constructs. The drive for active participation opens up a simple acknowledgment for change in the relationship between teachers and students advancement in fundamental abilities, including their rights as productive citizens with a voice in a collective society (Prior, 2012, p.25). Sataloff (2002) identified six main challenges to the student voice: Singularity voice implies singularity, which stereotypes and homogenizes young people, denying their agency as rational individuals (which is the fundamental rationale for the inclusion of their voices). Purpose young people are requested to express their voice for various purposes. However, it is generally evoked for particular interests. Elders should be aware of diverse reasons and contexts in obtaining the voices of young people, which requires various types of reactions. Embodiment the challenge in this context is the prioritization of verbal forms over different types of communication, particularly non-verbal expression. Authenticity voices are often comprehended by adult elders to be reliable or unreliable, true or untrue, which is over-simplistic for application to real situations, and immature to imagine that young people may be given their voice as if is the corridor to the means of authentic being (OECD, 2001). Language the possibility that

voice is viewed about actual verbal expression (e.g., dialect), which may divert attention from substantive issues, especially concerning different non-traditional types of multi-media and speech typically utilized by young people.

Etiquette the voice is viewed through the lens of prevailing social beliefs or decorum in normative cultures, and when young people do not conform with these forms, it may inhibit their expression of their views, preventing their genuine engagement. This often limits their contributions to tokenism (Arnstein, 1969; Hart, 1992).

The contrast amongst students and teachers is explained by specific distinctions that are useful in confronting the dualistic bond that works toward redressing some power disparity inherent in the existing relationship. Prior (2012) advocated student inclusion to convey to the engagement process a commitment that can cause and reinforce responsibility and learning in academic administration structures; for instance, in planning educational modules and assessing inputs from teachers, boards of delegates and advisory and committee members. This can move student participation towards active democratic structures, which to Bolaji (2008, p.20) suggested for the ascent of skilful teachers.

As the voice of YP may extend over the scope of different areas, there are some differences regarding what the view of students means in the academic environment. Drake, Fergusson, and Griggs (2014) proposed that the voice of students is multi-purposed because of its variety in training as well as the responsibility of students regarding concepts of social equity, rights, and citizenship (Storsul, 2014). In contemporary society, student voice programmes have gained more support and been driven by the imperatives of neoliberal capitalism, pertaining to the component of control driven by limited elders purposes being strongly connected to economic inputs, and the predominance of those in places or control of powers (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014, p.20). However, caution is needed in comprehending student voice development and movement.

The student voice may likewise be seen as commitment or responsibility concerning teachers

in which it might be viewed as a passing style (Bolaji, 2008, p.40). Therefore, rational, logical student programs become essential and must transcend tokenism. Bolaji (2008) noted the threat whereby some institutions set up some participatory exercises to inspire students voice that can sometimes be detrimental, when students feel confined or that the effort is a token one (Sataloff, 2002, p.27).

Furthermore, to evade pessimism with democratic procedures, it is necessary to reflect on the relationship between teachers and students in various kinds of engagement processes. Hart (1992) suggested the development of a specific participatory ladder that characterizes some clear stages of engagement whereby student voice may be coordinated with different levels of engagement practice with effective results.

2.6 Forming Young People and Citizenship

Introduction strengthens the student's voice to Citizenship in the Nigerian Federal School Curriculum. Learning and having knowledge of citizenship and democracy are essential elements in the curriculum in Nigerian schools, underpinned by some research engagement (Hart, 2009; Constantinescu, 2013; Brown and Wocha, 2017). Floris (2012) argues that citizenship offers students the knowledge base, abilities, and comprehension to perform actively in society. Thus, because of its fundamental political and philosophical assumptions, citizenship programs in school curriculums look to advance engagement in smaller-scale settings and are apprehensive of politicization among YP. They support improving the degree of consciousness and education about political participation in a broader context, to enhance active and rational citizenry in future (i.e., prepared for future politicization' and engagement in traditional party political activities). It is believed that such endeavors prompt students to be optimistic and have the ability to base and beliefs to work cooperatively in a broader setting. Active engagement is subsequently observed as the approach towards developing YP

lives to practice social obligations in a democratic society (Gaventa, 2006).

Lowndes and Pratchett (2006) argue that if YP is seen as young citizens and with democratic rights are entitled and able to practice active engagement in making decisions, then they may be considered as autonomous socially accountable and engaged citizens. The advancement of political philosophy in citizenship programs has supported students to gain comprehension regarding how they may view their right to engage in making decisions that influence their lives in a democratic society. Nevertheless, these improvements have demonstrated changes in demeanor and views of the capitalization of lived encounters of YP citizenry and disputed preconceived ideas regarding the capacities of YP.

Hart (1992, p.40) argues that it is improbable to imagine YP being responsible for engaging older adults if they do not have some earlier exposure to the aptitudes required for active citizenry throughout their years of development and transformative period. YP is necessary to have a comprehension of what it includes and the obligations entailed, including having an adequate understanding of local identity and engagement practices within a democratic society (Floris, 2012). Tonge and Mycock (2009) argue that young citizens should not be given the right and privilege to engage in making decisions because they are inexperienced. Floris (2012) argues that public education agendas are structured broadly to prepare YP to perform their role and be obligated and accountable in a democratic society when they become elders in the future. Hollingshead (2010) also argues that public education is mainly concerned with the individual development of YP as well as the socio-political development of democratic society to equip YP to engage in the latter. Along with these lines reasoning, the structure of citizenship programs is planned to fortify democratic systems. Thus, they affirm power-sharing foundations between elders and YP (Gaventa, 2006), particularly as a core in the educational curriculum and public education.

The Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) emphasizes the role of YP as prospective active citizens of the future, which has become very relevant in the growing ideological proposition

of the Alliance Peoples Congress (APC), the ruling government, as an essential part of the development agenda for Nigerian society. Oji, Eme, and Nwoba (2014) suggested that there are lots of shortcomings in political agendas and that civil society has allowed itself to be allured by the concept that social phenomena are for the Federal Government to address. They suggested that social plans depend on the postulation of hyper-personality ideology, which identifies with transforming citizens into consumers and supporting an impossible supposition of individual self-governance. Consequently, information, comprehension and advancement or development of the aptitudes of enquiry continue to be the core element for civil society and learning, which Karrer (2006) conceived of in terms of the following knowledge and comprehension (i.e., awareness) among active citizens; developing aptitudes of inquiry and correspondence, and developing abilities of engagement and obligation.

These three elements focus on the importance of interpreting the significance of engagement as standards of practice for citizenship programs. According to Fogg (2010), citizenship enables students to have awareness and become better educated, attentive, and dependable citizens who know about their obligations and rights. This suggests there is some political leaning that distinguishes student development as reliable and confident YP beyond academic environments. According to the idea of selfhood as being in a condition of distinctive identity, personality and egotism (UN Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA, 2010). There are developing visions of how people and society may be seen as particular domains on the grounds that there are differences between people and society and people and the social world (Francis and Lorenzo, 2002).

Challenges emerge when passing from a societal plane to individual roles and accountabilities, particularly while reflecting that some YP is experiencing their development in a society, like NDN (Fogg, 2010). In such contexts, YP continually becomes politicized, simultaneous with general biological and psycho-sociological phenomena of adolescence and early adulthood, such as being and becoming (Davies, 2009). Hence, YP are often depicted as politically inactive, despite the support given to them to actively engage through the civil society pro-

grammes. Which primarily take place in academic or school environments where engagement in the public domain of school life in the educational environment process is supposed to support and enable YP. Thus, students are to achieve the aptitudes, values, and understanding required to comprehend political issues and to settle the problems by dialogue (Odunmbaku, 2015). Davies, Bhullar, and Dowty (2011, p.22-30) argue that some students or YP have been transformed from being inactive, submissive beneficiaries to active, self-motivated relatively autonomous beings and information developers, which underpins their comprehension of democracy and politics.

However, it would be nave to expect a substantive level of political awareness through civil society education programs applied in academic and school settings alone. Broader citizenship engagement programs with features of the democratic policy are required to foster political awareness in all aspects of institutional, governmental, and agency structures of a democratic society.

2.7 Young People's Empowerment

The circumstances in which YP see themselves as possibly empowered and enabled to make contributions include involvement in family, associations, agency, and other different types of societal establishment or institutions. YP in this setting seems to have significant roles as members of their communities, the commercial world, religions, legal rights and social phenomena that relate to their wellbeing, and these roles are of political importance in their future development.

Since YP are engaged in various forms of outlets as citizens, the government is attempting to enhance their conditions as a collective group to have the capacity to participate in actively and significantly affect service development and improvements (Floris, 2012). This raises some arguments regarding the degree to which YP can effectively engage in making decisions

that influence their present wellbeing, and it is necessary to unravel what YP voices can be. For instance, in the school setting, academic institutions are supposed to show that there is mechanism set up for students or YP to engage in processes of making decisions and to demonstrate that citizenship lessons are effectively in place. In the encounters of these useful applications, it is noticeable that the YP provision of rights signifies lowering the power of this collective group of individuals (Silvern and Nakamura, 1971, p.146).

Regarding the change from the collectivist to personalised structure of reference, when it comes to responding to YP in the society social structure, De Backer and Jans (2002) stressed that YP is an element of the social group and on the other hand are social instruments, which suggests that they have the capacity to act as co-constructors of the social conditions in which they see themselves, although some political scientists debate YP position as targets of changes. The means that the social individuality of YP, constructed and co-ordinated in the process of change programs, is a significant aspect of empowering YP to believe that they have the right and privilege to be included and to effectively engage.

Barham (2006, p.12) noted that elders and adults often criticize YP for being divided and incoherent with their immediate communities, different institutions and organizations in society (e.g., conflicting with local councils or law enforcement agencies), which may undermine their capacity to engage and have a sense of empowerment effectively. This is egregiously evident from the frequent riots that occur in NDN (Beinhoff, 2011). Therefore, social variables should be recognized, addressed, and tended to if the establishments and associations and institutions are to support the relationship to help construct an active engagement culture in the society for YP.

Barber (2009) and Berno and Li (2010) developed comprehension of historical events pertinent to YP empowerment in contemporary society, for example in the encounters of political affront or outrage in NDN riots, relative to the necessary democratic stability and consistency in the public arena. Durkheim argued that identity is formed comparable to social

relationships and accepted ways of collective thinking and purposes demonstrating individuals interests outside their individuality, precipitating social links amongst social groups and establishments or institutions (Morrison, 2006). Subsequently, having a dependence on each other for social commitment tends to perform a check against identity. The request to develop opportunities for YP to engage in making decisions that affect their lives is not discretional, and instead, it is a primary obligation for meeting the social liberties of YP. Similarly, this seems to relate to social purposes concerning YP wellbeing, which may support and significantly advance social groups collectively (Berno and Li, 2010).

Nevertheless, some challenges can be noted in realizing this goal to empower YP to participate more effectively than has already been coordinated. Offering the opportunity to enhance communication processes gives more transparent data, counsel, and direction for active citizenship. These objectives depend on the idea of a contemporary society premised on duties, rights, and obligations and responsibilities (Forenza, 2016). As such, the community has an obligation to its subjects and vice-versa (stman, 2012).

2.8 Listening to Young People

Giving attention to the voice of YP is one of the most pressing needs for families, communities, and contemporary welfare societies (Teney and Hanquinet, 2012). The concept that YP needs to be consulted regarding the things that influence them is also possible and likely to be more amenable to elders than wholesale empowerment at least as an initial step to overcome barriers and prejudice. Inherent resistance on the part of elders is conditioned by perceptions that YP lack necessary skills and experience to genuinely participate in social and political processes, and the fear of the erosion of their power and authority (i.e., privileges).

Discussion with YP can generally mitigate such barriers, which enables YP to voice their concerns and elders to listen to them. Listening gives meanings and enables complementary

changes for mutual benefit between speakers and listeners (Mathis, 2016). Mayall (2006) offered a definite guideline for discussing and listening to YP. Some core principles are needed for YP whereby listening to YP and respecting their commitment improves their association with elders, enabling a constructive stage from which YP can effectively engage in a civil and democratic society (Mayall, 2006; Harmer, 2011).

The theoretical discussions of ways in which elders can listen to YP intrinsically acknowledge the inherent difficulty involved, especially about learning the way to speak to YP to understand their perspectives successfully. Similarly, there are challenges in recognizing the sophisticated manners by which YP communicate, and by which all YP, regardless of their experience and dialect, can be included and treated equally. The complex elements of listening were included in the Mosaic Approach of Mayall (2016), which depicts a structure for listening as an image of many parts that should be united to establish the meaning of the entire impression. The Mosaic method offers YP the chance to express their views in many ways of listening that recognize elders and YP as fellow constructors of inferences and meaning. It is a coordinated approach that joins the verbal to the visual. Mayall (2006) identified the following structures of listening: Multi-technique: acknowledges the distinctive voices or dialects of young people. Participatory: regards young people as specialists and actors in their own lives. Reflexive: involves young people, professionals, and guardians in considering the significance and meaning of interpretations. Adaptable: possible to be applied in many school environments and settings. Focused on young peoples lived encounters: the potential to be used in many circumstances and purposes, such as viewing lives instead of information received and knowledge gained. Embedded in training: a structure for listening to that may be used as an evaluative apparatus.

Listening skills are essential since elders need to pattern themselves to effectively listen to YP, not in terms of a dichotomous (i.e., competing) dialogue but rather to unite the structure of discussions, in that there are reciprocal respect, active engagement and the deliberation and co-development of meanings; Harmer (2011) emphasized the significance of listening with

interest to engage YP to learn, empowering them for decision making, express thoughts and feelings and to construct a positive perception of individuality. Westwood et al. (2014), it generates constructive and conscious links between elders and YP and encourages regard for human rights that will weaken preconceived ideas contrary to such rights. As such, YP becomes part of the civil society with the ability to perform effectively as active citizens and demonstrate respect for the rule of law and the practice of democracy (Harmer, 2011).

2.9 Informing Young People

The idea of advancing YP rights is much more complicated than merely executing the vision of UNECA (2009) in national constitutions. Different challenges exist, for instance, in the way in which YP rights are presented and how they are translated in various levels of policy and procedures at the federal, state, and local government levels. It is vital to develop and utilize better policy and procedural guidelines, and to monitor interpretation in real practice at the primary level inside organizations. This suggests that there is a need for radical modification in elders states of mind regarding their attitudes, behaviors, and approaches towards interacting with YP.

These thoughts were first acknowledged through the significance of the information. Davies (2009) postulated that the stock control and regulation of information to YP to some degree (often unintentionally) controls and regulates YP access to information, the government is depriving them of articulating their voice. Indeed, elders often use strategies to filter information due to their perception that this protects YP. The control and regulation of data is an essential aspect of the engagement process because if there is no better flow of appropriate information to advise and inform YP. It may not be easy to adequately participate in every aspect of the process of making decisions. It will not be possible for them to have good knowledge, for instance, the necessary information that is significant and useful for

making informed decisions.

Furthermore, YP have their individual preferences and resources in terms of how they source, process, and deploy information. However, there are various universal principles relevant to the way information is received, including the necessity for information to be presented in appropriate language for easy comprehension for the target audience (Ataman, ok and ener, 2012). A failure to equip YP with prerequisite information to articulate their voice inhibits their ability to advocate for themselves and to be accorded appropriate respect. Again, the acknowledgement commensurate with expanding their role in politics and decision making in society (Brett, 2011). Thus, entrenching the self-perception and social perception that elders know best, and are equipped to act vicariously as advocates for YP and other groups in society (Davies, Bhullar and Dowty, 2011, p.26).

The individual moral of information and access to it is significant in adultism (Davies, Bhullar and Dowty, 2011, p.25), and control of information by elders is a form of power control that functions to silence the voice of YP, rendering them uninformed and reiterating the self-fulfilling prophesy that YP are unable to contribute meaningfully. Consequently, YP develops a dependency for the sake of assurance, safeguards which in turn silences their voices. Elders are invariably in a superior position from which to state their views due to their hegemony over information, which encourages the belief that there is no reason to consult YP on vital issues since they lack the appropriate skills and necessary information (Bennet, 2008; Widin and Yasukawa, 2010; Davies, Bhullar and Dowty, 2011). Consequently, social development is formulated and reiterated by elders with little orientation to real encounters and the skills base of YP (Bell, 1995).

The idea of young people in terms of individual citizens with a social identity and not merely becoming citizens is inherently challenging for mainstream society and existing social, political and legal institutions, and general inertia tends to entrench the privileges of elders (or rather privileged groups in community generally, one indicator of which is age), while

excluding YP from a meaningful role in the public arena (Davis, 2007; Davies, Bhullar and Dowty, 2011). Consequently, YP has less control over the information they get and minimal access to resources in terms of time and space, assets, and choices (Chodkiewicz, Widin, and Yasukawa, 2010, p.20).

The adultism approach is focused by the epistemological paradigm, premised on elders consistent power based on their hegemonic control of information and institutions, which devalues the voices of YP and prevents them being heard (Davies, 2009, p.50). The systematic downplaying of YP perspectives is a form of adultism, despite the inherent importance of YP in broader social organization (Davis, 2007; Brett, 2011a). The bonds of the subordination of YP to elders underpin the minimization and marginalization of the former by elders, thus limiting the rights and potential of YP.

2.10 The Concept of Adultism

Stewart (2012) argues that adultism is a deeply conditioned, reflexive system of thinking, principles, and actions. Adultism can be explained as a habit towards beliefs, notions, viewpoints, and activities of adults or elders. Adultism is a paradigm based on the principle that elders are better and superior to YP at the societal level. Furthermore, it is described as a hard-inflexible type of conduct in the way elders cooperate with YP. This concept is strengthened through societal structures, such as traditions and attitudes, law, and the culture of social institutions. This kind of intimidation and segregation against YP may be seen as maltreatment and silencing people in society (Mayfield, 2006).

Brett (2011) argues that adultism is linked with the abuse of control over young people, and it is connected to physical and sexual abuse, threats and retribution including the arbitrary deprivation of opportunities to express themselves verbally in different situations and spaces. Brett (2011) also argues that adultism is even linked with incidents that happen or occur in

the community that leads to YP being put under community surveillance, with the presumption of stereotyped disbelief that YP can be useful members of communities and societies. Indeed, the young are systematically disrespected and mistreated in the city, generally by elders (Sleebos, Ellemers, and De-Gilder, 2006), in systematic ways like deprivation, lack of necessary information, deprivation of socio-economic and power, dependency, invalidation of rights and misguided information (Fletcher, 2003).

In this discussion, I have related the effect of elders on YP lives and their subjective wellbeing. In various forms, the paradigm of adultism considers the potential damages that it can generate, and which are manifest in forms of abuse against YP (Maxwell and Morris, 1992). The potential harms like disrespect and mistreatment caused by adultism behaviors and actions in communities and wider society are not to be overlooked because they lead to the paradigm of adultism relating to the assertion that elders exploration of YP is strengthened by societal cultures, beliefs, customs, and social institutions.

Consequently, YP is overlooked, snubbed, deprived and penalized in the socio-cultural space and structures in the social circles that exist in the public arena, as elders and adult are the agents of the democratic ills. Encounters with adultism as victim and perpetrator pervade the life journey, systematically oppressing YP such as by excluding them from any role in decision making, and such YP in turn later become the adultism elders of the future (Brett, 2011). Naturally, on the conscious level of cognition, most elders are open and amenable to YP involvement, but this general ethos is undermined by a nexus of structural discrimination that pervades society and its institutions, and it can frequently go unrecognized in the public arena. It is usually manifest in inconspicuous or subtle ways, especially in hierarchical establishments and organizations.

Hart (1992) demands a paradigm shift linked with adultism about engagement activities with YP, considering the components and degrees by which elders participate with the young. Harts (1992) model identified eight steps to recognize the power elements that elders have

over YP in society, which inform the road map to move YPE toward good citizenship and away from token efforts (Figure 2.1). The first three steps of manipulation, decoration, and tokenism are non-participatory types of involvement in which adultism is functioning at its highest level. The other five steps recognize various expanding levels of engagement wherein YP may experience more equitable inclusion. Through this method of different degrees of distinctions, it is possible to identify particular situations in which YP may engage actively.

Harts (1992) model may be especially successful in supporting institutions to reflect on how they evaluate their participation activities. At this juncture, it seems that it may be utilized mainly to check if adultism elements are seen in the organization and operational structures of events and performances. It will be helpful based on the reason that organizations and associations are required to gradually show how effectively they are listening to YP and effectively participating with them.

Hart (1992) discards the assumption that YP lacks in the ability to engage with elders in decision making, affirming a formative development process of backing YP as people with skills-based skills to participate, while acknowledging the practical necessity that this be driven within a framework of elder direction or guidance and the control of power manifest in contemporary society. Accordingly, Harts (1992) model is likely to recognize how elders may, as sometimes occurs, push forward decision making for YP by realizing that YP could contribute positively if permitted. The model thus calls on elders to view the various means by which the levels of non-engagement may present themselves in multiple situations when looking to acknowledge the developing ability of YP.

By reflecting on these numerous types of environmental and socio-political settings, Howell (2016) argues that, as YP continues to develop their qualities, privileges for engagement arise and spread to both private and mainstream circles and from community to worldwide impacts, as demonstrated in the diverse types of setting in which contemporary YP contemporary see themselves. This consideration indicates that YP initially starts to grow with family skills

concerning their support encounters from early adolescence, which if nurtured may develop into the YPs group activities, at some point in their school lives, and then to the general public for policy inclusion and to the society at large. The model represents the privileges and values that take place for sustaining YP drives in stages of life towards adulthood. It likewise shows the significant role associations and organizations, whether statutory or otherwise, play in supporting and urging YP to partake and engage in making decisions that will influence their lives and assist them in the future.

The various shapes, nature, and procedures involving YP engagement made this topic very open to a broader scope of definitions with different understandings and interpretation at every level. While the lexical meaning of commitment suggests sharing, to make contributions and to be involved, concerning YP participation it is about advancing the principle roles of democracy and useful association of inclusion in the process of making decisions. Since this concept is comprehensive, some significant and distinctive methods of communication should be characterized and defined, for example, joint effort or collaboration, contribution or involvement, listen and consultation or discussions.

Collaboration or joint effort means to incorporate some specific active participation and obligation regarding a mutual understanding and results. The terms contribution or partnership, for instance, include a broader awareness and attention to relationships and associations. Furthermore, the discussion and consultation of the term suggest to-talk about, or look at with, or to consult with other people. The use of these refinements for such communications may assist in challenging some false assumptions and presumptions of elders, which may and involuntarily set boundaries on the type of correspondence which will be received while speaking to YP. In a way, I believe that extreme and unmindful kinds of conduct can be clarified as expressions of elders vulnerability in understanding better ways to associate and respond to YP.

2.11 Conclusion

Based on the theoretical exploration presented in this chapter. Bretts (2011) position regarding YP encounters with types of abusive or oppressive circumstances known as adultism is manifest in some extreme forms of oppression (e.g., physical and sexual violence). However, in most societies, including in the NDN, is more commonly experienced in institutional terms as a general pervasive ambience in which YP is viewed as unequipped to contribute to decision making. This is an archetypal response to the natural order of human societies in which those with superior abilities are accorded (or accrue unto themselves) more rights and power, disadvantaging others in the process. As in the saying of Roald Dahls father: I am fast, you are slow; I am great, and you are little; I am correct, you are incorrect (Richter, 2015, p.329). For me, this encapsulates the ethos of adultism as expounded by Brett (2011) regarding elders interactions with YP in reiterating discriminatory social norms.

I consider a certain level of effectiveness is missing in Harts (1992) model in that it suggests that elders may comprehend and acknowledge their actions as adultism as manifest in the manifestations of steps one to three (non-engagement). I prefer a more straightforward analysis whereby some better intentions are needed for balance, which ordinarily gives rise to altruistic actions by elders when considering, comprehending and clarifying why they think that it is hard to offer a stage to YP to have their voice (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014).

Significantly, it may be emphasized that elders are a product of their individual lived encounters, which exclude training in practical abilities and skills to engage with YP effectively similar to the lack of skills and experiences used as a rationale to exclude YP from decision making. What is required is another exchange that discloses these different acquired sociocultural, prejudice attitudes, and types of communication that have affected the development of YP.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW ON YOUNG PEOPLES ENGAGEMENT

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the theoretical research on YPE. Although some of the models used in this study were designed for children, they apply to YP in NDN based on the Nigerian or African definitions of youth. Some of the literature used was gathered from the Wiley Online Library. The web index was thoroughly reviewed since it has the comprehensive international acceptable standard recognitions for articles in this area of study (Beinhoff, 2011; Tilly, 2011). I also engaged myself with the International Journal of Child, Young People, and Family Studies and Sage Journals for articles on YPE and gathered some information from publications and articles from government documents and reports, conferences, NGOs and

information papers from research institutes as well as Google Scholar and the University Library. As part of the process, articles and references were deployed to follow up subjects of interest and gain a comprehensive overview of existing research pertinent to important issues and to identify gaps in existing studies of YPE.

Engagement refers to the essential rule of the management of local individuals in internal or public projects to achieve experience, necessary skills and knowledge in order to be in control of the changes in their groups and lives (Aiken, 1965). The engagement of YP in public projects was addressed in articles 12 to 15 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1989). Some YP agencies are forming and motivating opportunities for YP to associate and express their views on issues relating to making decisions. It is noticeable that most international NGOs often use the phrase young people engagement when referring to consistent strategic plans for YP inclusion (Newburn, 2006).

YPE has turned into an essential topic for some agencies, with the perception that programs are more credible if they consider the ideologies and needs of YP (Smyth and Mclnerney, 2013; Mathis, 2016). Engagement is now seen as a mechanism for enactment at the policy level as a new test of social improvement and development (Whyte, 2003; James, 2005), and it is the present norm for YP rights and policy in practice (Jones, 2001; Penn, 2014). Constantinescu (2013) stressed that anyone who challenges the principles of YP rights is effectively guilty of heresy (The religion embodied by the UN is likely to become increasingly inquisitorial and oppressive in its dealings with the remnants of the traditional world, including African societies. Regardless of the perceived or transcendent right and wrong of its dogma, by what right does the UN purport to declare universal principles? Thus, critics see this as cultural imperialism (as noted in section 3.3).

3.2 Defining Young Peoples Engagement

The right of a young person to engage, as stated in the UNCRC (1989) article 13, represents a significant development in conversations on the rights of YP, as past declarations were unable to achieve consensus on the right to engage in making decisions that influence YP futures. Furthermore, from the rapid growth of YP activities, it appears that YPE is developing and accepted, as shown in the democratic development activities in most disciplines on youth engagement (Ataman, Cok, and Sener, 2012; Gane, 2017).

The YPE concept is viewed as necessary in the formation of a global ethical mandate (Wilson and Wilks, 2013; Graham, Powell and Tayloy, 2014). Given the profile of YPE, this is a field with high-quality literature and investigation concerning the general development of sustainable democratic policies (Hollingshead, 2010; Ostman, 2012). According to Storsul (2014), engagement creates anticipation and antagonism in an equal measure, as it introduces the influx of a new cohort into the political discussion. Joselowsky (2007) argued that there are contradictions in the type, scope, and structure of the patterns engagement should follow. Wong, Zimmerman, and Parker (2010) also argued that there is a lack of clarity regarding YPE about YP rights, although effective advocacy will strengthen YPE and present clarity and acknowledgment of the concept of engagement.

The engagement of YP can be classified in terms of the persistency of YP inclusion in decision making (Hollingshead, 2010). This degree of engagement may vary about substance, constancy, and the import of decisions affected by such involvement, in tandem with the abilities and choices of YP themselves (Stankiewicz and Lychmus, 2016). Joselowsky (2007, p.258) helpfully provided two meaningful definitions of engagement: the feeling of partaking in and becoming available, and the sense of realizing that an action is being identified and might be followed upon. These were classified by Amna and Sachs (2017) as dormant and dynamic engagement (respectively).

Arnstein (1969, p.253) argued that engagement is the approach of distributing decision that influences individual subjective wellbeing and the individual community wellbeing. The different definitions provide features proving that engagement is broad in meaning for various individuals and various settings (White, 1996).

3.3 Objectives of Young Peoples Engagement

Sometimes it may be argued that engagement is primarily the role and exercise of functioning citizens (White, 1996). The UNHCR (2005, p.2) states that YP have always engaged in life encounters such as groups, neighbourhoods, school, home, and work. Given the general existence of some form of engagement, the question arises of what the significance of YPE is as operationalized in the UNCRC (1989) and academic literature. Current engagement tries to emancipate and improve YP lives in most countries (Davidson, 1998; OECD, 2001). Sleenhoff and Osseweijer (2015) supported the view that if engagement is to become functional, then power imbalance issues need to be addressed. For instance, Francis and Lorenzo (2002, p.15) quoted one YP conference attendee who commented engagement may not be effective except when decision-makers are willing to delegate power and share it in an equal way.

As Derek (2006) asserts, including YP in decision making suggests that the power to act on decisions is distributed among them. Mayfield (2006) emphasizes this view by arguing that engagement suggests combined responsibility in decision processes and useful inclusion of all individual power distributions. Furthermore, it has been argued that engagement initiatives without the redistribution of power are frustrating for YP who engage in such initiatives (Hart, 1992, p.46; Driskell, 2002). Gaventa (2006, p.30) noted that all debate regarding YPE alludes to the concept of power, and in some instances, it does need clarity in identifications, clarity in the reconstruction of what it implied by power and its control. As Wenmoth (2006) argued, engagement can be active, practical, and constructive for YP if they are empowered.

When implementing change in an organization, it is important to consult all stakeholders and to promote their involvement in the change process in order to plan an appropriate informed change, and to increase the chances of its being successfully implemented in an organization or system (UNECA, 2009). This is the consensus in studies of organizational change (e.g., in business literature), but it seems to be lacking in the area of politics and international development, where the UN, US, EU, and NGOs confront developing countries (having complex socio-economic challenges) with a list of culturally constructed demands that they must meet and values they must adopt (i.e., cultural imperialism) (UNCRC, 1989).

For example, the oldest continuous civilization in the world is based on the Confucian model of the Far East; the whole premise of YP engagement other than deferring reverently to elders is anathema to this tradition (Wilson and Wilks, 2013). However, few studies have explored the potential readiness of elders, adults, and decision-makers to distribute power over making decisions to YP. Lawndes and Pratchett (2006) cautioned that constructing engagement should not be viewed as simple issues of being in and taking control of power. Furthermore, the UNCRC (1989) did not lay any obligation on decision-makers and elders to distribute power to YP (Davies, 2003), but as noted inaction previously in driving the UN's YPE agenda is increasingly viewed with censure (Constantinescu, 2013).

3.4 Classification of Engagement

Classification of engagement has been initiated in some literature to demonstrate the level of power distributions. Hart (1992) noted there are countless examples of people who gave up power (e.g., Indian Rajas becoming hermits, the abdication of Edward VIII, and numerous Christian nobles and princes who became monks). However, in general, history shows that the powerless often have to struggle to achieve any rights, particularly the redistribution of wealth and political representation and power. Harts (1992) citizenship ladder of engagement

explaining various levels of relations among people both in and out of control, as shown in the previous chapter.

The kind of non-engagement demonstrated in steps 1 and 2 of the ladder should be addressed by efforts to educate participants (Hart, 1992; Drikell, 2002). Steps 3 and 4 enable all participants to have a voice and listen, although they are not yet emancipated. In step 5, the participant advocate role exists, with the obligation to choose and decide held in the hands of organizations. Sincere participants appear to start incorporating discussions and uniting responsibilities for decision making (Drikell, 2002). In steps, 7 to 8 participants often form majority groups in circumstances where decision-making circles or tables are used.

Fletcher (2003) analyzed and developed Harts (1992) model to provide elaboration of how different classifications are formed in practical implementation. In situations where YP are occupied with issues that they do not comprehend, the consequences of their activities and actions are called manipulative (e.g., a primary school child coming out to demonstrate a poster regarding political non-inclusion of YP in the educational policy).

Fletcher (2003) described this in terms of programming YP with some generic slogans regarding some political issues, without any critical appreciation of those issues or a voice in them. In this level, adults ensure that they deploy YP to support their agenda in the eyes of order adults. Similarly, tokenism is used in occasions where YP are allowed to have a voice that is of no practical import, nor do they have a choice about the issues discussed or the means of conveying it.

In the assigned but informed stage, Fletcher (2003) recorded some required expectations from various tasks or project in order to be identified as participatory project: firstly, that YP comprehend the aims of the functions; secondly, that they understand who and why is decision made regarding their engagement; thirdly, that they have a significant role instead of decorative services; and fourthly, that they will decide to volunteer in the tasks or project if is clearly explained.

The consulted but informed step is the stage at which YP are seen as consultants to decision-makers. In this step, the decision-makers plan and manage the task, as YP comprehend the procedure and their views are considered. The action of adult initiative and sharing decisions with YP is sincerely participatory because adults will initiate the tasks while YP shares in making decisions. The level of YP starting and managing or directing the discourse is when they design the means and approach of supporting a task. Fletcher (2003) admits that this is very rare due to the foreign concept of YP initiating and managing local tasks, but they can be commissioned to undertake such roles. It is more common for them to start and share decisions with adults.

Fletchers (2003) analysis suggests that YP need to be progressive and direct themselves to improve gradually (Warburton, 2007). Shier (2001, p.123) argues that Harts (1992) model is contradictory, as it seems that in practice one step sometimes cannot take YP to the next level, but Fletcher (2003, p.10) contended that YP developing abilities to engage is not to be viewed as a series of consecutive steps according to a blueprint (despite the figurative representation of a ladder), but rather a multi-dimensional system developing individual capacities and abilities. Fletcher (2003) argues that YP is probably going to progress in various stages, at various circumstances, and on multiple tasks, thus their levels of engagement may be different, as in the way YP construct their abilities and motivations, which may sometimes depend on their social, cultural and family contexts (Fletcher, 2003, p.8). Fletcher (2003) further reiterated that the three lower rungs of the ladder need to be circumvented and that the first step is often irrelevant. Thus, the ladder is a general starting point for the classification of considering YP tasks or projects (Fletcher, 2003). However, Lawndes and Pratchett (2006) argued that the ladders of engagement inhibits the realization of decision-making opportunities and forums.

Davies (2009) recognized Fletchers (2003) variant of the ladder as particularly persuasive, but they presented an optional approach to engagement to enable practitioners to explore various features of engagement approaches and procedure. Davies (2009) focused on the ways

that organizations and agencies structurally encourage or limit YPE, suggesting conversation starters that practitioners may instigate for themselves before evaluating their standpoints, thinking about where they may be led, and what is required of them to arrive there. This approach depends on stages of engagement, through methods of collaboration amongst YP and adults; firstly, YP is heard. In some configurations, without YP themselves initiating a dialogue, there seem to be no active attempts on the part of the adults to listen to YP or for YP to have a platform to voice their views. Secondly, YP is motivated to communicate their perceptions on issues: at this stage, it is argued that perhaps some YP cannot volunteer to express their thoughts as needed in the first stage. Therefore, the adults will ensure the motivation of YP to communicate their ideas. Thirdly, YP thoughts should be taken into consideration, although it is not necessary or advisable that all decisions should be in favor of YP, as with any interest group in society (Davies, 2009).

Davies (2009) suggested that YP need to be given input regarding the reason why their thoughts were not respected or taken on board and then motivated to seek after different methods for accomplishing their goals. Fourthly, YP is included in the process of making decisions: this stage is considered to be the period and phase of making a change in consultation to active engagement in the process of making a decision (Davies, 2009). Thus, YP is seated at the table pondering on alternatives, denoting the progress from the meeting and checking the other options of what next to do. Fifthly, decision making, power, and responsibility are shared: this stage looks like the fourth stage but requires equal numbers in attendance so that the YP will not be outstripped.

In each stage, there are three levels of responsibility: starting point, opportunities, and duties. In the starting point, participants demonstrate personal responsibility and aim to do the job in a dynamic way (Davies, 2009, p.20). Opportunity stage pertains to available resources that will persuade and empower individuals to be responsive to the work. In the duty level, the organization is in agreement that all participants will work in a particular way (Davies, 2009). Bernoff and Li (2010) reiterated that this model is valuable for practitioners and

agencies or organizations since it will assist in clarifying the object by answering any new questions. They argue that the ladder model suggests that the highest stage is active since the ladder is for stepping up, and the individual should endeavor to achieve the best or get to the top but they acknowledge that is not often possible for all, because different stages of engagement are required in different situations/circumstances. Wong, Zimmerman, and Parker (2010) argue that the limits among these different stages are often not as clear as it seems.

Furthermore, with regard to the argument against the hierarchical characteristics of the preceding model of engagement, Davies (2009) adapted Harts (1992) model by overlooking the three lower stages and reforming the five remaining steps in round way to show the diverse power relations amongst YP and elders or adults in various participatory methods by not giving unique opportunity to a particular process (Bernoff and Li, 2010). Davies (2009) stressed that it is balanced but divergent; for example, it is not possible to have a perfect or optimum engagement level. UNICEF (2001) agrees that Davies approach is very realistic and practical in its requirement that elders and adult engagement is a necessary precondition when considering YP participation.

Shier (2010) highlighted the functions of YP, elder, and adult engagement based on the steps of engagement by Arnstein (1969) and Hart (1992). These approaches encompass 13 functions expected of elders and adults to demonstrate, whether deliberately or inadvertently, to encourage or impede YPE, from non-passive resistance with the first as combined cooperation to the orientation of YP by elders and adults at stage 13. Shier (2010) also contended that it is conceivable that similar elders and adults demonstrate some of these functions with similar YP under various circumstances (Shier, 2010, p.14).

Furthermore, regarding the argument of various levels of engagement being suitable in multiple conditions, Shier et al. (2014) focussed on the kind of commitment that appears appropriate to the requirements of YP. The model approaches are non-hierarchical since no level is

thought to be preferred over another. The suitability of the standard should be resolved by the conditions and the YP degree of engagement (Shier et al., 2014): elders and adults need to take YP perspective into consideration; YP should be engaged in making decisions with elders and adults; elders and adults should distribute responsibility and power for making decisions with YP; and some decisions should be made independently by YP.

Shier et al. (2014) posit that YP perspectives, whether volunteered by them or solicited by their elders, need to be esteemed, and the communicated aspects should be utilized as a means by which elders genuinely consider YP input in finding what decision is to be made. YPE in making decisions is the stage at which elders and adults are involved in discussions, yet the elders and adults generally make final decisions and take responsibility for subsequent actions, while YP may be included in piloting and implementing the measures. Beyond this, elders may distribute responsibilities and power to YP in making decisions, reaching joint conclusions through deliberations, consent, and often by voting. The stage at which YP make decisions independently may still require contributions and guidance from elders, often based on the nature of power and responsibilities (Shier et al., 2014 p.7).

All of these approaches reflect varying degrees to which elders distribute (i.e., delegate) decision-making authority to YP. The achievement of YPE is based on the functions and cooperation of elders and adults in a position to obstruct or encourage the procedure of engagement.

3.5 Advantages and Outcomes of Young Peoples Engagement

There have been various arguments regarding the progress and possible benefits of YPE. Some have argued that YPE inherently improves decision making (Fogg, 2010; Wong, Zimmerman,

and Parker, 2010). YP have unique perspectives and thoughts based on their insights and encounters that can be useful in the process of making decisions, and which may lead to good results and conclusions. Wong, Zimmerman, and Parker (2010) cited the example of YP aged under 18 in Bangladesh being dismissed from a cloth company they worked for because they advocated against child labor; they pointed out that according to most economic analyses, if these YP had been heeded they could have improved the firms operations and the conditions of labor (and thus general financial wellbeing) in Bangladesh.

The UNDP (2002) presented the example of YP establishing a commission in Benin (NDN) to suggest to villagers how to address contemporary issues of concern to YP in the village. These YP affirmed that smoking and drinking abuse were issues of primary care in their town. The YP met the village chief and elders and submitted intent that all the shops in the village should stop selling cigarettes and alcoholic drinks. The village chief and leaders suggested that all the family heads should vote on the matter, which resulted in support for the YP submissions. The UNDP (2002) reported that the shops stopped selling cigarettes and alcohol, and the rate of molestation, abuse, and violence (associated with alcohol consumption) correspondingly reduced significantly in the village.

Treseder (1997) queried whether YPE schemes and teamwork genuinely promote satisfactory outcomes and improved skills among YP. Some studies have cautioned against relying on phraseology like self-assurance and empowerment utilized in engagement literature, suggesting a gap between empowerment and engagement. For instance, the OECD (2001) argues that any achievable meeting is likely to empower YP, while Treseder (1997) suggested that even if engagement generates opportunity for the empowerment, it cannot be inherent. In more recent literature, YPE is universally regarded as valuable and advantageous to YP development (UNECA, UNFPA, and AUC, 2009). To UNECA (2009), YPE helps YP subjective wellbeing, development of definite individuality, feeling of responsibility, soundness of mind, and competency.

Furthermore, Sleenoff and Ossweijer (2015) remarked that by engaging YP they could contribute to the development of togetherness in a given community, generating and improving skills along with experiences, bringing people together and strengthening individual and community abilities. UNECA (2010) observed that activity engagement makes students believe in themselves and improves their perception of their academic performance. Haber-Curran and Sulpizios (2017) study in Nigeria considered an engagement program among neighborhood and working YP, finding that YP developed in certainty and confidence as a result of the engagement, which increased their self-efficacy. Kwaymullina (2016) also presented another instance of some YP who remarked that their communitys engagement contributions made an impact on the success of an engagement scheme.

Bulling et al. (2013) argue that family engagement in making decisions help develop YP learning process and that engagement requires discussions, compromise, understanding, choice and arrangements, and that engagement is not only about satisfying desires, rather sometimes compromise is necessary. Healy, Darlington, and Yellowlees (2011) note that the most natural and optimum place for YP to practice engagement is in the family, where practice can improve YP capacities to engage effectively in developing circumstances. This affirmed earlier work by Maxwell and Morris (1992) arguing that active self-determinism motivates YP to build a capacity building for making decisions gradually.

Some studies reiterate the essential ethical argument in support of YPE, as it gives equity to YP (Kwaymullina, 2016). Socio-political life is motivated by engagement (Savigny, 2014), thus overcoming difficulties such as social marginalization and exclusion through enhancing political sensitization empowers YP to defy and change any practices that side-line them (Tonge and Mycock, 2009). Ethical perspectives on YPE mainly concern citizen rights (Skelton, 2010) and empowering YP to present innovative ideologies that are significant in the political process (Rosen, 2014) for instance, regarding YP capacity to offer inventive knowledge, a UNDP (2002) report detailed a case of conflict between two communities in NDN about constructing new buildings. A group of young women suggested that every room

should be built with a toilet in order to have proper sanitation and infection control, which surprised the government and elders, including adults, who never thought of public hygiene in this way.

YPE makes significant contributions to the responsibility and accountability of people and organizations (Ataman, Cok, and Sener, 2012). For instance, YPE can aid recognition of benchmarks, equity, and what it means to organizations, affirming that agencies are responsible and accountable to demonstrate fairness in their relations (Reddy and Ratna, 2002).

3.6 Barriers and Concerns

There is a developing concern regarding the degree to which YP considers seriously as engaged in the process of making decisions, and about activities scheduled to support YPE (Clare, 2001; Francis and Lorenzo, 2002). Amidst the developing sense of responsibility regarding the inclusion of YP in engagement activities, there are some scholars such as Floris (2012) and Driskell and Kudva (2009) who caution that engagement does not automatically ensure benefits for YP, particularly as they often do not have any significant effect on the outcomes of decision making even where they are consulted during preliminary phases of the political process (Bulling et al., 2013). Gaventa (2006) suggested that YP are significant people in any system or society, but often their voices are not taken into consideration, and they are rarely genuinely involved in making decisions regarding YP themselves. However, some adults and elders acknowledge the significance of considering YP voices on decisions that relate to them.

There are various critiques focused on the missing links and the rationale of engagement and evidence showing its effect and results (Gaventa, 2006). YPE is often tokenistic, with the improper representation of membership, as elders continue to be ineffective in deciding on what the needs of YP are (Martin, 2010). Indeed, the engagement itself does not necessarily give YP what they want or need (Bulling et al., 2013). Wong, Zimmerman, and Parker

(2010) consider genuine engagement to be useful, bona fide, significant, compelling and real, while other studies use different descriptive words to refer to elders granting and accepting YP requests and inputs in the process of making decisions beyond mere tokenism.

According to Ogunleye (2004), there is also concern that engagement can trouble YP with obligations and responsibilities regarding making decisions that may repudiate their rights of adulthood or lead toward exploitation by loading them with excessive requirements regarding community development and social amenities (Goodwin and Young, 2013). Wong, Zimmerman, and Parker (2010) presented an instance that in some developing counties YP associations are often conscripted to perform social amenities like road cleaning, without any remuneration, and they are thus exploited under the umbrella of YPE in community services in their geo-political constituency.

3.7 Young People's Engagement Literature

Some literature on YPE is descriptive and theoretical, with the little pragmatic investigation. However, YPE is gradually and progressively gaining attention worldwide (Sleenoff and Ossweijer, 2015). It is important to note that in some developing countries in Africa and Asia, engagement has been observed to be particularly low for disabled YP (Skelton, 2010; Sleenoff and Ossweijer, 2015). Sleenoff and Ossweijer (2015) suggested that engagement for disabled YP requires more improvement since there appears to be little proof of good engagement practice, and they expressed dissatisfaction regarding the non-accessibility of literature on particular issues that may support or promote disabled YPE. Rosen (2014) surveyed 101 ministries and departments of welfare and empowerment in Nigeria to recognize and explore work concerning disabled YP. They found that 63 participants reported the disabled YP in their decision-making process, while about 30% reported engaging disabled YP in some of their decision-making processes, for instance, in their wellbeing or empowerment.

Another means of engagement for disabled YP is to call them for conferences on YP policies, to share in discussion regarding the way to involve disabled YP and to exercises and also enjoy the socialization this affords. Rosen (2014) found that about 40% of attendees detailed the kind of improvements expected of the administration concerning services for the engagement of disabled YP. Nevertheless, the increases were regarding exercises and leisure enjoyment. From the survey, it was realized that disabled YPE had not been fostered and supported by the relevant government agencies and offices; implementation is sketchy and needs more improvement. Rosens (2014) survey exposes the governments approach to addressing issues of disabled YPE, albeit the information is the viewpoint of the government departments, ministries and agencies, and not the disabled YP themselves.

Furthermore, Rosen (2014) also noted that most existing literature is concerned with disabled YP and their guidance or parental care and making decisions in the family, YP in mainstream schools and YP rights or human rights and YP (Gaventa, 2006; Wrigley, 2011; Floris, 2012; Bulling et al., 2013), and YP engaging in the decision-making process of schools (Barber, 2009; Ataman, Cok and Sener, 2012). There have been more recent studies of YP participation and wellbeing (Forenza, 2016), YP and environmental degradation (Saxby, Gkartzios and Scott, 2017) and community YP development (George and Sice, 2014) that generally affirm this position.

It was long ago highlighted that there is less evidence of YPE at the federal and state government levels, making it challenging to evaluate YPE in government policies and programs (Kohler, 1982), and this research gap was underscored by Gaventa (2006). More recently, Wong, Zimmerman, and Parker (2010) found limited progression in advancing YPE in both federal and state decisions beyond token efforts. Brown and Wocha (2017) also maintained that assessment of YPE in deciding between public is not always effectively embraced (Odunmbaku, 2015). As such, YPE in policy procedure is to an extent disregarded. This is contrary to the expectation that articles 12 to 15 of the UNCRC (1989), which should have an impact at the level of implementation and making policies (Freeman, 2007).

According to Odunmbaku (2015), the Nigerian experience has not shown that YP can engage in the process of federal policies programs, based on interviews with four of seven young delegates and a focus group with 40 village elders and volunteers to explore perceptions and encounters regarding the APYP. It was concluded that YP needs to be effectively involved in the formulation and policy planning. Thus, at the stage of implementation, the YP were all consigned to the village stage of the implementation group, and at the federal level, there was no YP delegate.

Brown and Wocha (2017) explored YP participation in forming the Rivers State Government policy for YP, noting that sustained efforts were made to invoke YP consent. Boards were set up to oversee the formulation of national policy for YP development composed of developmental agencies and government departments with ten delegates assigned to formulate a policy plan, yet there were no YP as delegates in these boards.

Haber-Curran and Sulpizio (2017) studied some federal government programs to find out if YP has an impact on government policies at the local, state, and national level. They used questionnaires, interviews, and email to NGOs and government agencies and establishments. The outcome was that YP has more impact at the local area in formulating decisions but not at the implementation level. However, engagement was rhetorical and weak. Haber-Curran and Sulpizio (2017) acknowledged that the aspiration and commitment to participation are not enough to enable it to happen (i.e., to drive implementation of YPE).

3.8 Conclusion

This review has analysed diverse literature, some of which found engagement to be supportive, viable, and practical, although there is a consensus that issues of power need to be brought under control. YP who advocates for power, when allocated are not taken along during decision making. Generally, elders and adults are held accountable, and as such, they

often exercise authority and control YP. Thus, they make decisions for them, even though sometimes YP may not accept such decisions or find them prudent (Hansen, 1984; Wilensky, 2014).

This review found that YPE literature has not been thoroughly researched in NDN, particularly relating to the areas of YPE and policies about local development and education. However, most studies found were on YP exploitation and degradation. I firmly believe that my research will be beneficial to YP in neglected regions of NDN.

The next chapter concerns YPE and the conceptual framework about the sociology of YP in NDN.

CHAPTER 4

POLICY PROCESS

4.1 Introduction

The way in which policy procedure is conceptualized has impacts on the questions asked and procedures used by researchers, such as my own enquiries regarding YP (Li, 2018). Consequently, it is helpful to consider the different conceptualisations of policy procedure, an intricate and multi-faceted political process with numerous actors, such as citizenry, civil society, civil groups, political leaders and public servants etc. (Johnson, 2003; HyunjaejaeHo, 2015). Glennon (2007, p.30) criticised the view of policy as actions, considering it more in terms of aims (intention) and perhaps a combination of actions and aims. Blackmore (2018, p.227) considered the definition of policy as an intentional course of plan actions with the group of actors in order to address issues of concern or challenging issues. This definition of policy suggests that it is relevant and significant to nearly all that individuals do, for

instance personalities with their own rules, whereby groups of people (including companies and agencies) have their rules or policies (Ruiz-Estrada, 2011).

This study concerns public policy, defined as an outline of law and different actions regarding government purposive action, specifically peoples activities under its sovereignty (Pyper, 2000). To May (1992), policy may be viewed as public policy only if it is structured and propagated within the scope of organisations and government procedures. In this chapter I analyse literature on the different procedures that clarify the formulation and implementation of public policies.

4.2 Policy Procedures and Actors

In the policy process there are numerous participants who can be grouped into formal or official and informal actors. Formal actors are engaged with the procedure, since they are given obligations in law and accordingly have influence to make and implement policy (Hayes, 2007). Official or formal actors include the arms of government such as the legislature, judiciary and executive. These arms offer the policy legitimacy, since they are unequivocally alluded to in national constitutions (Glennon, 2007). This group are voted or delegated and also appointed. Informal actors are participants without any precise obligation or legitimate duty in policy procedures but who assume a role since they have a significant interest to secure, protect and advance (Hayes, 2007). The people that make up the informal actors are the citizenries, media, political parties, institutions and civil organisation groups. These actors in policy procedure cooperate intently and in a multifaceted way to promote policy recommendations. To comprehend these interactions, I will explain core terminologies like policy design, domain and network.

4.3 Policy Formulation Approach

According to Hayes (2007), policy design is the method used to transform policy by means of mechanical or practical analysis and political procedures to realize specific objectives. Decisions made at the outlining stage of policy have impacts on implementation and outcomes. Consequently, the way policy is considered and executed to some degree decides its outcomes, including potential barriers and setbacks. Policy procedures include the inputs, achievement/output and results. The inputs are often causes, for instance things that are used in the political system to realize a specific policy result or objective such as party ideologies, apathy and protest. Achievement or output are what policy gives out or produces, such as the exertion that the administration targets to address issues. Such efforts include policy statements, official presentations of public policy, such as judicial orders, laws, executive guidelines and directions (Blackmore (2018) as well as the services offered by the government (Hayes, 2007). Brennan (2008) suggested that there are three necessary policy outputs: regulatory, distributive, and redistributive.

4.3.1 Regulatory

Regulatory is the output concerned with policies that are purposive for business and behavioural governance. Regulatory output pertains to protective and competitive regulative policies. Protective regulative policies manage actions for the security of the general population, such as regulatory bodies for pollution and food contamination for public health protection. Competitive regulative policies bodies are in charge of controlling service and participation of citizens in the market, such as exchanges, trades and institutions (Hayes,2007).

4.3.2 Distributive

Distributive output concerns policies dealing with the distributions of resources and benefits to a specific portion of the populace with the cost comprehensively spreading through society at large. Hayes (2007) suggested that because the cost of distributive policy is not intensely reflected on other groups of people within society, the procedure is characterised by considerable deliberations and transactions, whereby conflict becomes insignificant. For instance, social amenities are outputs of distributive policies.

4.3.3 Redistributive

Redistributive policy output is about attempting to make amendments in the distribution of current resources, cost and benefits to other groups of people by trying to inflict some noticeable cost to other people in the society (e.g. civil rights and social welfare policies). The regulative and redistributive output are considered to have relative conflicts between actors because some groups of people receive earnings from the expenses of others. The results of the consequences of redistributive policy are very clear, reflecting either the inaction or action of the government with positive or negative effects for various stakeholders and society in general (Blackmore, 2018, p.227; Hayes, 2007).

4.4 Policy Domain

Policy domain is the functional territory of policies, where members or participants within policy procedures contend and make compromises (Hayes, 2007), including human rights, agricultural and educational policy. Furthermore, the policy domain can be sub-grouped into sub-domains including children and university rights. These areas are contained inside policy documents; thus, the actors are effectively included in making policy in a specific

domain as they are division or subgroup of individuals that can be associated or involved in issues, and they are specialists in that area, with understanding, deliberating and clarifying any issues (Hayes 2007, p.467).

This subgroup of people often includes top government officials or those in the bureaucratic levels and sometimes a few interested group members that interact to accept and take official policy decisions (Waddington and Toepke, 2014). Participation in community policy is variable, with some walking out of the debate and new voices and actors coming into the debate. Various entrance points enable groups in the community policy to venue shop, a concept pioneered by Guiraudon (2000) and Pralle (2003) to characterise the circumstances whereby a certain group of people are selected and lobby organizational and government agencies.

4.5 Approach to Policy Networks or Relations

Policy networking comprises reciprocal sustainable collaborations or relationships between government and societal actors regarding policy issues (Wong, 1998). Arising from the competing and contending interests within policy procedures, policy communities co-ordinate themselves to form links, federations and coalitions, which are characterised by shared dependences and the trading of resources among different government and actors in society (Hayes, 2007; Waddington and Toepke, 2014). Some models and theories on policy network are pertinent to this discussion, particularly in terms of the caveats identified by Johnson (2001), who conceptualised issues network, and Dunlop (2009), who referred to policy networks as epistemic communities. Policy communities and networks are inter-related and proffering distinct definitions of each is difficult. Johnson (2001) argued that network policy is the weaker version of policy communities, as networks can cling to communities from which they will crumble into networks (Guiraudon, 2000; Pralle, 2003, p.245).

4.6 Procedures in Policy Formulation

Academic scholars of policy have outlined various models to explain the procedures of making public policy. This section focuses on various methods of viewing policy formulation.

4.6.1 Heuristics Phases and Rational Decision Procedure

According to Pogarsky, Roche and Pickett (2017), rational decision procedures argue that policy formulation is dependent on an attentive positioning of choices and selections of the alternative which will warrant a maximum social benefit. Hertwig (2017) suggested a structure that represents five phases in the procedures of developing policy, including some of the powers that influence decision makers: Prognostication and measures the procedure begins when an issue is recognized and recommendations to take care of the issue are debated.

Policy makers policy makers deliberate over the different proposition set forward. Policy makers are lobbied by diverse stakeholders inside and outside the government. Policy decision after deliberating on the different recommendations, the policy makers settle on the proposal that they feel most suitable. Ideally this should be based on an objective evaluation, but it is often coerced or induced by various forms of lobbying, including corruption in some cases. Implementation as soon as a decision is reached, it is implemented; and Policy result in the last stage, the outcomes are attained, preferably (but not always) the intended results.

In Hertwigs (2017) structure/framework, the impact of interest or concern groups are consigned to the phase of reflecting on the alternatives of policy decisions or choices. Furthermore, interest groups exert influence in different phases of policy procedures. The structure is questioned for not having an evaluation stage, and some academics argue that a lack of evaluation entails that the policy process be reiterated if a result is not achieved (Pralle, 2003; Hayes, 2007). Hertwigs (2017) structure is considered the straight model of policy

procedures, which posits that policies often lead to achievable results, but this is not always the case, thus there is a need for an evaluation stage.

West (2004) suggested a different structure by focusing on the point that the procedures for making policy are very interactive, not straight or direct and linear. Their structures involve the programme stage, whereby issues and alternative solutions are considered (Hayes, 2007). West argues that developing policy does not start until the point at which policy makers are persuaded to believe that the issue is sufficiently significant for them to invest more time deliberating over. This suggests that matters or issues should be first channelled into an agenda or programme. Thus, Friedmann (2006) suggested three measures that an issue or matter will meet before being considered as an agenda or programme:

The matter is required to have adequate scope (a considerable group of peoples, communities or civil society is affected). The level of intensity (the extent of the effect) is high. The time involved in the issue (i.e. whether it has been a cause of concern for a long time). In most issues the time involved is a factor, but often this can be overcome if the issue is perceived to be of pressing and immediate importance (Hayes, 2007).

Wlezien (2016) used a stream metaphor to demonstrate an alternate view of the way an issue may be included in the agenda or programme stage. The room for opportunities is made for change if an issue causes at least two of three streams to converge:

Issue stream envelops the causes of an issue. For example, if the impact is becoming bad or improving and if the issue could be addressed through alternative solutions. Policies stream contains the possible answers or solutions for an issue. Politics stream including the federal and state government politics and civil society opinions.

Wlezien (2016) argued that for a situation to be an issue, individuals need to be persuaded to believe that something has to be done to transform the situation, suggesting that public opinion is an important component in the policy procedure or process. West (2004) recog-

nised that policy procedure may be changed or turned around at any phase in its life cycle by consideration and responses from individuals who are against it. Consequently, the formulation of policies does not automatically prompt implementations. Since the issue could not be included in the policy programme or agenda, policymakers could choose not to give attention to it, maybe because of limitations in the policy stream. This is unlike the linear or direct model and the interactive model, which consider policy change as a procedure or process, whereby interested individuals and parties may exert pressure for reform at different times, with varying influence according to contextual factors.

Sinclair (2017) explained that the linear and interactive models are the heuristic phases methods, which stress policy makers rationales and their capacity to settle on better choices on policy decisions. These methods propose that the formulation of policies is a rational procedure that includes different characterized steps, for example the decision makers received all vital information, analyse the distinctive choices and then choose the alternative that gives the best opportunities (Maatta and Erisson, 2014). This supposes that making policies begins with issues being recognised, trailed by defining and positioning the objectives and aims. At that point the different options for managing the issue are analysed, including the resources. Finally, based on this analysis, the options that boost the achievement of the objectives and the incentive for resources are selected (Cotton, 2013).

These methods continue to suppose that the federal and state authorities are unbiased and that their particular interests do not have an impact on public policies; clearly such an assumption is impractical in real analysis, as all policy makers have interests which they try to fulfil (Wong, 1998). Pavey (2003) argued that federal and state directors and managers are considered to be self-interested, keen on amplifying their influence, reputation and riches (Wong, 1998, p.464). Similarly, Borras and Jordana (2016) argued that federal government authorities react to motivations and dissuasions. Since they are probably not going to embrace policies that are by and large disliked or that will make them lose majority support, they make bargains that keep them in control and look after income, votes, or other popular

interests that sustain their power (Borras and Jordana, 2016, p.2137).

Again, these methods run into the problem of assuming that policy makers are rational. Eck (2010) argued that this assumption is unrealistic due to the myriad interests and pressures acting on policy makers. May (1992) categorised such inducements into organisational and psychological influences, and noted that policy makers often lack the comprehension, abilities and values required for rationalities (for example, policy makers are inherently constrained from purely rational choices by their own psychological profile). Organisational constraints are when the guidelines or procedures of an association hinder the methods preferred by policy makers. Cotton (2013) argued that policy makers are intermittently confronted with plainly characterized issues, emphasising that issue definition is the situation of social constructionism. Laranja, Uyarra and Flanagen (2008) comparatively brings up an issue with the subject of objectivity, suggesting that rationale analysis is based on preferences and values, which cannot be communicated in money-related terms.

4.6.2 Limited Rationality/ Diversified Scanning / Incrementalism

The argument that policy makers try to be rational but are unsuccessful due to personal and contextual constraints or limitations was explained by the limited rationality and incremental models (Andriole, 1979; Capano and Lippi, 2016). Andriole (1979) suggested that policy makers may and have to be rational in the face of making decisions because their wish are expected to be rational. To Andriole (1979), the behaviours of individuals in associations or organisations are supposed to be completely objective. Limited rationality proposes that policy makers conduct themselves rationally as needed within certain boundaries, including regulating and constraining information, restricting time and restricted human capacity to comprehend reality. Andriole (1979) proposed that policy makers can enhance their objectivity or rationality by depending on professionals or consultant groups while making decisions.

Capano and Lippi (2016) fundamentally diverged from the traditional view that policy makers should and ought to be rational, arguing that complete rationality in making policy is impractical; as such, the procedures of formulating policies are incremental. Policy makers depend vigorously on past record and experiences with little policy approach to predict the outcomes of similar approaches in future (Capano and Lippi, 2016), suggesting that decisions are made by policy makers in a considerable increment, instead of in huge jumps. Policy makers do this by contrasting the achievements and disappointments of past and existing policies which have been considered to settle an issue.

The concept of incrementalism suggests gradual change or stage-by-stage changes (Capano and Lippi, 2016). As such, policy producers reflect on some of the options in addressing an issue that perhaps vary slightly from current policy, rather than starting over again. Capano and Lippi (2016) reasoned that policies are not formulated in a single iteration, rather they are always reviewed, since policies attain some of it aims and also generate unexpected outcomes/results. Furthermore, by continuing with incremental transformations policy producers may circumvent challenging lasting errors in deferent ways. Capano and Lippi (2016, p.287) termed this method progressive constrained comparisons, although the literature often alludes to it more simply as incrementalism. Russell (2009, p.33) reasoned that for incrementalism to remain constant, three related conditions have to be considered:

1. The aftereffects of current policies have to be principally accepted (by the policy producers and social strata that they rely on), to enable minor changes to be sufficient for attaining a satisfactory rate of enhancements in policy outcomes/results

2. There should be a high level of uninterruptedness in the nature of issues

3. There has to be a high level of coherence in the accessible means for managing issues

Thus, incremental approach could be reprimanded for its failure to represent sudden changes in policy or circumstances, whereby policies are annulled or abrogated, because its scope is

only about minimal changes in current policies. Russell (2009) reasoned that without any past policies in regard to issues, incremental change is in actuality inconceivable, suggesting that behavioural and technological changes initiate new activities, which, unless disregarded, prompt radical review and new policy. For instance, the internet and the development of modern social media over the past couple of decades has pushed the limits of traditional security and free speech policy, with limited clarification on any active way forward.

Besides, incrementalism is reprimanded for the failure to manage issues that require daring decisions which may not plainly met with incremental pace, for instance the decision for political revolution (Hayes, 2007). Gregory (1984, p.140) rejected the incremental model approach as a stumble in history, like an alcoholic putting one incoherent incremental foot gradually, potentially going around in a circle or initiating action without purpose (Williams, 1979, p.685). The practice of incrementalism may smother societal developments because it means policy development within the constraints of the legacy of previous government policies (Williams, 1979). Thus, Herbst and Schraeder (1995) argued that is a disjointed approach to making government policy, and that it is very confusing and often misleading.

Capano and Lippi (2016) recognized that this model is remedial, and adapted towards the easing of current, existing mistakes or flaws as to the advancement of future social objectives. They claimed that radical change of policy is not mainly conceivable, although they accepted Russell (2009, p.33) argument that incrementalism policies are substantially less demanding to implement than assertive non-incrementalism. Capano and Lippi (2016) retorted to criticism regarding incrementalism by suggesting that it is not fitting for managing complex issues, which mandate the skilful practice of incrementalism; however, they neglected to show any methodological approach to lead to such the skilful action. Nevertheless, incrementalism is respected in the study and exploration of public policies. While Russell (2009) noted various reservations, these are inadequate to modify its principle effect as a conceptual fortification. Maatta and Erisson (2014) consider incrementalism to be a classic theory in studying policy, and a vital tool for the formation of theories for making policy produces.

Williams (1979, p.687) advocated a mixed scan approach, combining the attributes of limited rationalities and incrementalism, arguing that the rationale model is as unfeasible and unappealing, as the incremental approach is preservative. Williams (1979) reasoned that because it is not feasible for policy makers to obtain the necessary information required for rational decisions, policy makers scan issues and scrutinise vital areas and apply incremental processes to any low-significance areas where quick changes are not required. This mirrors Russells (2009) suggestion that making policy includes esteem judgment, negotiations and consultations.

The mixed-scanned model can be defined to be a hierarchical approach to making decisions that consolidates higher and lower priority decision making incrementally, which is intuitively effective (Schraeder, 1994). While considering mixed scanned model, Williams (1979, p. 679) differentiated between the incremental and basic decisions. For him, basic incremental decisions are made through considering the primary options actors find in perspective of their conceptual objectives... however, details and identifications are missing for the reviews or summaries to be practicable. It becomes hard to fathom the contrast amongst incremental decisions and basic decisions. Furthermore, he suggested that basic decisions are often arranged by incremental decisions, so that the last decisions may initiate less immediate changes. This leaves confusion regarding whether the final decisions are incremental or basic, but he did differentiate incremental decisions from basic decisions.

Waddington and Toepke (2014) suggested a guideline of using less than 10 percent changes, whereby decisions outcomes of under 10 percent change to the original plan may be considered incremental, while those with above 10 percent change should be seen as basic decisions. The 10 percent guideline is very hard to apply since a lot of policy decisions do not bring about changes to plans, and it is unclear what variable is being quantified as a percentage. The second means is the distinctions between incremental and basic decisions structured by Russell (2009, p.33) in scanning for settling relationships. Andriole (1979) reasoned that supposed incremental decisions needs or attract decisions that are contextual, basic decisions, and he

could not expatiate what settling relationship implies and /or what decisions that contextual means. He thus appears to suggest different perplexing concepts without clarifications.

4.6.3 Concepts Based Process

It will be easy to miss out, if policy making is only to be understand as negotiating and influences, to the injunction of debate and contention. (Wong, 1998, p.465)

John (1998) suggested that it is difficult to envision politics without concepts. The concepts-centred approach contends that policy is significantly structured by concepts that may offer solutions/answers to public issues (Clark, 2011), and that specific policy adoption is intent on the nature of contentions presented by lobbyists to policy producers/markers (Ostman, 2013). Therefore, the role concept negotiators are very significant. Maatta and Erisson (2014) argue that without individuals to convey concepts to policy procedure, they are probably not going to be influential. The recognition that thoughts are progressively viewed as significant in policy procedure and the necessity to have conceptual intermediaries affecting the development of political thinking. It is complex to explain what a concept is, because it can be confounding, but Clark (2011) suggested that concepts may: be explanations/statements of significant values; indicate the purpose of a relationship; provide solutions/answers to public issues or matters; and depict and portray public and private identifications within ontological paradigms (Clark, 2011; Silva, 2014).

Despite the challenges in the exact definition of a concept, advocates of the concepts-based policy process argue that concepts are vital to public policies, since they are conveyed in the debate that influences policy changes. For instance, Junker, Bucheckey and Muller-Boker (2007) reasoned that the diffusion of new concepts may prompt a new style of conduct which may turn out to be significant element in policy cooperation. Conversely, Pralle (2003) and Maatta and Erisson (2014), while acknowledging the significance of thoughts, suggested other

vital elements that may gain or blemish the development of concepts. Pralle (2003) suggested three elements needed for new thoughts to make impact on making policies:

1. The concepts should be apt in the context of existing conditions

2. The concepts should be discerned as attractive and of concern for prevailing political benefits

3. The concepts should be judged in terms of practicability through the administrative process

According Wong (1998), some policy researchers seem to be reserved about the efficacy of the concept-centred approach, contending that the belief regarding policy makers using actual thoughts/concepts from people is very utopian. Reiterating Pralles (2003) second element, as discussed above, Wong (1998) emphasized that often policy makers acknowledge thoughts which are in consonance with their own advantages. Takalo (2012) contended that adjustments in federal government and state policy can invigorate policy changes instead of concepts/thoughts themselves.

4.7 Policy Network Process

> *Organisations are not only significant, they characterize/define policy procedures, the distinctive kinds of relationship among organisations delegates, bureaucratic officials, political representatives and different participators in making decisions to represent the different means through which political structures process policies. (Silva, 2014, p.530)*

Teye (2013) is recognised as the initiator of the policy network model, which postulates that making decisions includes multiple inter-related and mutually dependent groups and organisations, and these relationships correlate with policy domains (Silva, 2014). From this reliance,

policy networking appears. As such, policy networks happen if there is some exchange of assets among different governments and societal actors and federal government administrators (Hayes, 2007; Waddington and Toepke, 2014). This network model comprehends the procedure of policies which include a variety of mutually related actors, as it considers process of policy to be formed by reliant interests of either the federal/state and societal or civil actors (Teye 2013). To Silva (2014), this network model appears practical since it entails the difficulty of policy procedures. Similarly, Wong (1998) contends that the acknowledgment that federal/state government actors are not nonpartisan influences the network model to fit policy analyses in some developing nations that the interests of the federal/state government actors could not be disregarded.

This policy network model ignores the assertions that political representatives, bureaucratic officials and CSOs are the only stakeholders in policy making. Wong (1998) reasoned that administrative policies may not be comprehended well if the impacts of interest groups are not critically analysed, and they play an active role in structuring policies Teye (2013). (Hayes, 2007) argued that their presence alone essentially promises a voice in making policies and noted that some organisations are more influential than others, reflecting their resource accessibility. Interests groups utilise their available resources, including economic and informational resources, access to policy makers and the media, and emotive leverage over public opinion to offer professional ideas and necessary information that will enable policy makers to act when making decisions.

Organisations who can contribute financially or sponsor candidates for elections thus achieve considerable weight in policy considerations. Sinclair (2017) argued that there is a belief system which decides the route a political representative will take to move any government projects, the capacity to do which will be fundamentally reliant on available resources, including professional expertise, funding, public supporters and legal advice. Capano and Lippi (2016) lamented the huge imbalance in the power and impact of businesses in the political arena, however some scholars argued that officials generally follow their own interest which

reflects other non-power related interests in formulating and implementing policy (Wong, 1998;). As Lee (2017) argued, policies issued from the federal/state level do not necessarily represent the requests of populations affected, rather they are the consequence of the way the federal/state representatives see their interests and specific problems/ issues. Consequently, federal/state representatives may recommend policies that thwart the interests of affected populations, even when purporting to serve their interests (see 6.3,4&5).

Thus, this generates issues that need explanation in regard to governmental roles in networking. Waddington and Toepke (2014) and Teye (2013) consider government and civil society representatives to have equal influence in networking, with the former managing the network while being controlled. Warneryd (2005) referred to co-governance by perceiving special influences accrued by the government because of its control over legality and assets/resources, which accord it massive leverage and control. Wong (1998) claimed that the government controls the network and utilises connections within it to pursue its own particular interests. Similarly, Silva (2014) supported that networks are systems through which governments may strengthen their independence.

According to Cammisa (1995), the policy network model is excessively concerned with co-operation while overlooking conflict and resolution. To Ostman (2013), conflict remains unavoidable when organisations/bodies contest with members for funds, positions and perhaps recognition in policy achievements. Furthermore, it could be argued that this model only emphasises the relationship among top government and organisational leaders when meeting in elite policy making arenas, while at the same time disregarding micro-level interpersonal and unofficial relations (Silva, 2014). There is a need to be aware that the kind of connections/relations in network policy are competitive. Fleisher (1999) considered networks to be founded on individual connections amongst trusted and known people, while Feiock (2003) and Teye (2013) reasoned that they are connections among the roles that people perform and the positions that they occupy rather than the people themselves.

4.8 Concept-Based Process for Advocacy Coalition Processes

The advocacy coalition process is formed by an association of individuals from different respective positions (e.g. delegates and organisational officials, civil group leaders and academics or researchers) with a common belief system in terms of norms and values, assumptions and perceptions, thus they demonstrate a non-trivial level of organised activities after a period of time (Sinclair, 2017; Ostman, 2013). Ostman (2013) referred to these belief systems as a main policy belief, which include negotiations on particular issues to bind coalitions, which affect the conduct of different governmental establishments after a period of time.

The approach suggested that the advocacy coalitions and casual relationships are either internal or external parts of the political organizations, which structure public policy as well as the source of policy concepts. Thus, interest and civil group set the program, do policy formulation and tend to induce government officials to embrace policy. Different contending coalitions utilize various techniques to make impact on policy makers. Conflicting techniques from various coalitions are resolved by bargaining to avoid conflict (Sinclair, 2017). The policy outcomes reflect the objectives of the organisations that utilize the best techniques to impact policy negotiators.

According to Ostman (2013), policy coalition structure formulates policy, specifically policy change, which is initiated through a collaboration of contending advocacy coalitions inside the policy subsystem; the external changes on the policy (for instance, financial changes on the economic situations, influence from other policies); and the impacts of relatively stable policy limitations (for instance, established guidelines, social structure). The policy subsystems are various public and private actors concerned with particular policy issues (Sinclair, 2017). As considered before in this draft, some policy brokers named this subsystem as policy community. Individuals in the coalition appears to engage effectively as a result of their

mutual understanding or belief system of influencing the regulations of different legislative organizations/government to realise their shared beliefs (Sinclair, 2017; Ostman, 2013).

The effect of public opinion on policy procedures varies greatly according to numerous factors (Sinclair, 2017). Non-elites have the desire, skill and time to be effectively engaged in policy subsystems (Ostman, 2013, p.684). This approach is recognised for combining various frameworks into a systematic theory and for suggesting a method for mapping out the negotiating stages of the policy process (Maatta and Erisson, 2014). Nonetheless it has some criticisms.

Kim (2014) and Lees-Marshment (2016) argue against the advocacy coalition approach based on the implicit notion regarding participants/actors that have similar beliefs working in agreement with each other. Lees-Marshment (2016) considered this notion to be challenging and precarious, contending that a shared policy belief is not adequate to ensure systematic and robust actions. Kim (2014) reasoned that institutional/established heterogeneity could cause more coordination issues, such as the institutional variance between the lawmaker, media/journalist, leaders of interest groups and academia, which might often limit their various abilities and desires to participate with each other, regardless of whether they share homogenous beliefs (Kim, 2014).

Furthermore, Lees-Marshment (2016) contended that such actors are essentially motivated by their own political and professional agendas. Maatta and Erisson (2014) questioned if policy-related beliefs (instead of voracity, self-intrigue and power) are really the substance that keeps advocate coalitions together, also noting that bureaucrats also have partisan interests and values that are instrumental in the way policies are structured. Again, Ostman (2013) recognized that in concentrating on shared policy beliefs, the process of advocacy coalition disregards organisational and personal interests.

4.9 Policy Implementation Processes

According to Waddington and Toepke (2014), within the time of policy formulations and implementations the political scenario changes to the extent that this time affects the execution of policy. According to expediency, the phase of policy implementation might be abandoned or modified to meet the expectations of interested/desired individuals or parties (Maatta and Erisson, 2014; Waddington and Toepke, 2014). Some policy practitioners have questioned the notion of the implementation phase of the policy process, with practitioners facing a continuous sequence of policy processes formulated to be administered in response to numerous potentially short-term political trends (Blackmore, 2018).

According to Maatta and Erisson (2014), some policy practitioners differentiated between the implementation and formulation stages of policy processes (Hayes 2007. The conceptual basis of implementation is very robust (Pralle, 2003), including the activities of private and public organisations or people organised for the success of aims/objectives put forward in exiting policy decisions (Park, 2015). Gore (2011) propounded the concept of implementation research, defined as the interaction process among setting arms and the plan for success (Maatta and Erisson, 2014). To put it plainly, a policy implementation process is when relevant organisations and agencies put into impact policies accepted and enacted by government. This study further outlines some structures of implementing policy.

4.9.1 A Bureaucratic Rational Process

The bureaucratic process considers policies as being presented at the highest level by political leaders and top government officials and conveyed downwards through the hierarchy of people implementing it, such as educators, social services officials and law enforcement officers, whom Preston and t Hart (1999) called street-level bureaucrats. Implementation can be facilitated if the aims and objectives are well defined and stated clearly, relative to the availability

of sufficient resources and a functional chain of leadership (Gore, 2011; Maatta and Erisson, 2014). The essence of these arguments is based on the notion of implementation chain, focusing on differences in the collaboration of organisations that have to work with each other to effectively implement policies, otherwise the outcome will be deficiency in the implementation process. In an ideal bureaucratic administration, the accessibility of assets/resources along with political worthiness would perpetually bring about ideal implementation (McBarnet, 1988; Pralle, 2003). Park (2015, p.135) further stressed that implementation is possibly effective when the objective accord of the policies is notable. Ostman (2013) and Sinclair (2017) suggested that the elements which will improve implementation of policy process are as follows:

- Policy goals ought to be clear and stable;
- Causal suppositions epitomized inside the policy need to be right;
- Legal and managerial frameworks need to be adequate to keep tact inside limits;
- Implementing specialists need to be talented and devoted;
- The civil society, interest groups along with analytical sovereigns need to be supportive; and
- An effective socio-economic system has to be in place.

These different elements are all necessary for effective implementation, and the overall focus is on clear and explicit policy aims and objectives. Hayes (2007) argued that if policy makers neglect to give intelligible rational objectives, implementation is probably going to be troublesome and challenging as officials, agencies and individuals charged with enacting the policy without hesitation may seek after various objectives. Johnson (2001, p.28) cautioned that policies are sometimes intentionally made to be perplexing, unclear, uncertain or even good for nothing other than serving political opportunism and jobbery. Subsequently, it is

hard to distinguish rational ideal policy aims, as real policies are produced by and often result in conflicting aims. Sinclair (2017) acknowledged these weaknesses and advocated that the focus on clear and stable policy aims is an error, noting that few projects match this paradigm, as stakeholders in fact have diverse priorities and potentially conflicting aims.

The bureaucratic process is questioned for its implicit affirmation that the lower levels of the hierarchy are reflexively obedient and synchronised with the higher. Ahn (2007) and Hayes (2007) referred to the situation of tactical deferral in situations where the local stage implementers try to slow the pace of implementation in order to manipulate policies to address local issues and requests. Ostman (2013) dismissed the reasoning that street stage bureaucrats can exercise versatile implementation, by which policy makers are coerced to assent to the predilections of street stage bureaucrats and people with interest, explaining various lawful and political components for constraining the conduct of street stage bureaucrats. For instance, policy makers often have preferences for some groups of officials for implementation over others and give expedient motivating forces and sanctions. While admitting the ideal of hierarchical control through the understanding and application of strictly regulated conduct, Ostman (2013) further suggested that the conduct of street stage bureaucrats might be placed within adequate limits.

4.9.2 The Hierarchical Process

Hierarchical processes postulate that results of policies to some extent rely upon the interests and choices of street stage bureaucrats. State governments have the ability to implement policies they prefer, however the significant impact on outcomes arises from cooperation among street stage bureaucrats and their followings. Preston and t Hart (1999) noted that street stage bureaucrats enter administrative service with some similarity of vision and philosophy, but resources, circumstances and time manoeuvre them into a situation where they diversify with a coping approach, which includes making use of their discretion. As tight hierarchi-

cal control could not be practicable, street stage bureaucrats could modify some policies, although inadvertently. To Preston and t Hart (1999), street stage bureaucrats mould the way in which public policy is implemented by means of their decisions, schedules, procedures, and the apparatus that they design to adapt to deal with vulnerabilities and work challenges; they effectively and explicitly contribute to make the public policies they implement.

The hierarchical process is questioned for not giving careful consideration to the capacity of top officials to structure the conduct of local policy enactors. Kayes (2009) argues that supposed leaders apply little effect on the activities of subordinates, and that at that point some axioms of emancipative government stop being functional democracy, as the contemporary state assumes that changing some officials in high positions eventually changes the activities of thousands of representatives and activities in the democratic system.

4.9.3 Negotiation and Discussion Process

This process or approach was proposed to counteract the bureaucratic and hierarchical approaches. It can be argued that decisions absent in the planning or formulation phase are negotiated in the implementation stage. Maatta and Erisson (2014) observed that in either bureaucratic or hierarchal methods of implementation, the people in the forefront of delivery policy have shifting bands of circumspection over the way they decide to practice the principles they utilize to apply. The process or approach considers implementations to be structured the differences and negotiations. Thus, there are controversies in the way in which such differences are controlled. Wong (1998) contended that a viable process of implementation requires strategies and frameworks for managing such differences in order to realize acquiescence, while Kayes (2009) and Maatta and Erisson (2014) claimed that since no framework can splendidly manage the differences, the processes of implementation often become a game of negotiation, influence, persuasion and manipulating under uncertain circumstances.

Bureaucratic enactors or implementers often seem to be lacking an acquiescent relationship with hierarchical systems of implementation (Dyson and Preston, 2006). The implementation of policies relies upon a substantially more unobtrusive and complex procedure of discussions and negotiations among the representatives of the high and the low, each with their esteems and values and influences of control (Antrobus, 2001). Implementation could be top-down to the extent that the state government enacts laws to limit the power of lower levels, and bottom-up to the point that lower stage participants/actors adopt decisions that cogently constrain the hierarchical control, pre-empting the making of serious decisions or adjusting policies (Dyson and Preston, 2006, p.267). It is necessary for implementation to be considered as action/policy continuity through which negotiations and bilateral discussions processes happens over a period time among policy implementers and civil society, upon whom the materialisation of policy making ultimately depends (Dyson and Preston, 2006).

Antrobus (2001) noted that these processes are possibly free of prior beliefs regarding hierarchy and perhaps the domain of the chain of power in policy (Simonton, 1993). However, this view is questioned for being general to the extent that processes of implementation turn fluid and unclear (Howlett and Wellstead, 2011).

4.10 Conclusion

There are numerous models or approaches or processes to policy procedure, which partly reflects the wishes of various policy specialists and researchers to produce a better integrated policy theory. It is apparent that no viewpoint is superior to others, as they all clarify distinctive aspects of policy processes (Silva, 2014). No theory can capture or clarify the unpredictability involved in decision web (Maatta and Erisson, 2014), and the consideration of multiple theories or models in the policy process may be better than adopting one approach (Schlager and Weible, 2013).

The Advocacy Coalition approach by Ostman (2013) and the Network Policy framework by Teye (2013) are often used and accepted research policy theories. The latter places more emphasis on the analysis of federal/state and inter-government associations/relationships in the conventional policy making stage, and disregards interpersonal connections among level street bureaucrats and civil society representatives. They have a tendency to arrogate bureaucratic approaches of implementation and to decide a particular policy domain to be the unit of their analysis (Ostman, 2013). Dur (1999) noted that the hierarchical model can be used to understand the forms of interactions between different policy stakeholders in the policy process rather than to understand the implementation of policies per se.

Silva (2014) suggested that they are probably not going to embrace policies that are by and large disliked or that will make them lose majority support, thus decisions are often determined by professional inquiries and answers from analysts. Howlett and Wellstead (2011) argue that such analysts try to enquire if policy aims are changed into substantial output, or perhaps whether the results of policy are in accordance with its objectives, in which case the bureaucratic viewpoint is preferable. This study was established in the network policy theory of formulation of policy, to explore and consider how YP collaborate with political leaders and bureaucrats in the construction of regional/national YPs policy (YPP). Regarding the implementation of policy, this analysis was established from the bureaucratic viewpoint, seeking to understand YP objectives in the regulation of their engagement in all stages of making decisions in Nigeria, including implementation.

The theories derived from previous literature, analysed in chapters 1, 2 and 3, are depicted in Figure 4.1, showing how the concepts are consolidated and explored in this research work.

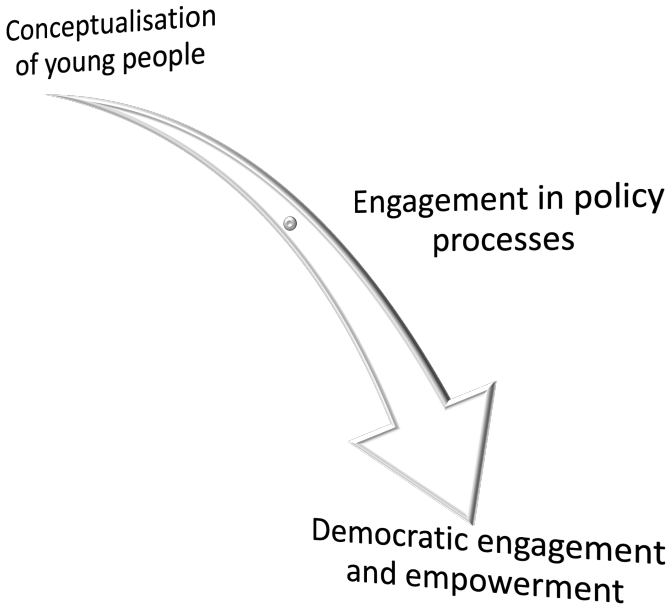

Figure 4.1: Process of young peoples democratic engagement and empowerment

The model shows how YPE in making policy is to some degree dependent on whether they are considered to be experienced or inexperienced and the extent to which their rights to engage in decision-making, particularly concerning issues that affect them, are acknowledged. This varies according to the nature of different societies and the way in which they conceptualise YP and decision making, which determines whether they are considered fit to make meaningful contributions in policy making.

Generally, there is latent disrespect for YP right of engagement in most societies, and I found this to be firmly entrenched in NDN during my data collection, as elucidated in chapter 6. Furthermore, the matrix outlines that in order for YP to prevail over the inexperience label and the non-acknowledgment of their rights of engagement, they must be empowered in to put pressure on political leaders along with policy makers, which could happen in the form of an engagement franchise in a democracy, for example according them electoral rights, as presented in chapter 6, to clarify this debate.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH FOUNDATION

5.1 Introduction

Researchers worldviews shape their outlooks or convictions, which in turn have impart on the approaches they use to consider and analyse the subjects they research (Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007). It is essential for researchers to consciously address and understand the philosophical basis for their approach and to acknowledge their own convictions and role in the research processes. To address this aspect of my research design, this section uses the framework suggested by McDonnell (2016) to present the research epistemology, theoretical views, methodology, and methods (see 5.3). It considers the methodological rigour of this study with regard to the methods used for data collection and analysis.

5.2 5.2 The Research Agenda: Unpacking the Research Questions

Chapter 1 established the study background and clarified why the study essentially explores the nature of YPs political engagement processes relating to the present generation of YP, centring on YPE in policy formulation and implementation (which was explored in detail in chapter 6). Furthermore, the Nigerian National Youth policy document (2001) also states that YP have the right to partake in democratic activities of concern to them (see 1.11). I argue that this generation is particularly significant as the first to lack direct experience of military authoritarianism, although it continues to be affected by postcolonial and military legacies, thus it is instructive to compare their experience in terms of attitudes toward political participation with their peers in mature democracies (Babatunde, 2015) (see1.11.1).

Furthermore, I argue that, by interpreting my findings in relation to those of previous studies in established democratic settings, this study identifies significant relationships and disparities. Given the low levels of YP political inclusion in NDN, I argue that there is a gap in the current understanding of YPE even in established democracies, where YP generally have low participation in the political process, such as electoral activities and political party engagement (1.10.3). Thus, my research questions are designed to address this gap through the main research question: **What is the nature of young peoples political involvement in policy processes?**

5.3 Research Design: Form and Concepts

A research project of this kind is not an abstract academic inquiry, but a dynamic and interactive process of conducting research with YP in NDN, some of whom may be vulnerable, entailing due consideration of safety and security as well as appropriate empirical methods

(Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007). My research process is designed according to the conceptual paradigm or framework of this study (Muntjewerff, 2014), which establishes common ground for positive discussion. I have strengthened my understanding of these procedures and their relevance and found them to be invaluable to my capabilities as a researcher, as manifest in my introductory proposals for this research design, and the ongoing evaluation of the appropriateness of the methods adopted.

A research design must be targeted to and centred on the purpose of the study, thus it is essential and necessary to develop an outline identifying the questions to study, what data is relevant, what data should or can be collected, and how the data can be analysed to produce findings (Lonka, 2014; McCluskey, 2013), as explained below.

5.3.1 What Questions to Study

To address this issue, I framed the main research question and three subsidiary questions.

Main question:

- What is the nature of young peoples political involvement in policy processes in Nigeria (Niger Delta)?

Sub questions:

- Question (1): In what ways are young people engaged in policy processes in the Niger Delta?
- Question (2): What are the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process?

- Question (3): In what ways are young peoples engagement in policy processes promoted in the Niger Delta Region?

5.4 Paradigms and Research Traditions

This section presents the rationale for using a constructionist epistemology. Figure 5.1 demonstrates the connections between the various functions that form the procedures of a research process (Muntjewerff, 2014). Epistemology is the study of the origin and nature of human knowledge; in other words, what can be known, and how we can know it (Lonka, 2014). This study adopts the epistemology of constructionism, Epistemological assumptions establish the groundwork for meaningful action to establish knowledge claims (Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007). Premised upon the epistemology, the theoretical view is the means by which the researcher posits the research process, based on which the methodology is developed, which underpins the choice of methods. A methodology could be understood the aspect of a research design which connects the theoretical views with the practices or methods adopted to collect and analyse data. The research approach is contextual study.

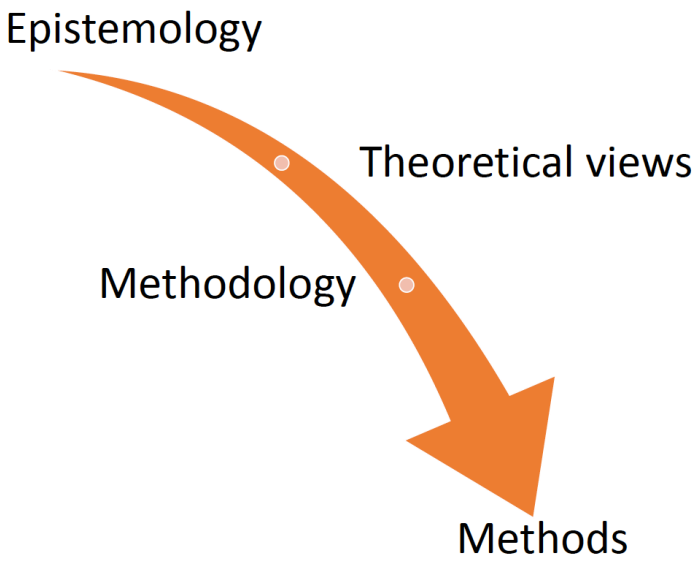

Figure 5.1: Muntjewerff's (2014) research process structures

However, Muntjewerff (2014) did not directly address the deeper, more fundamental aspect of the research process: ontology, the study of being, pertaining to the nature of existence or the structure of reality. Ontology is not directly important to Muntjewerffs (2014) research process, which is designed to be practically expedient, but I consider it necessary to establish the underpinning ontology for the purposes of my research. For instance, I cannot reason about how I can come to know about YPs involvement in policy processes except by establishing claims about political processes. Therefore, ontological suppositions strengthen the research process. As such, in this research work, such suppositions have been clarified by establishing significant concepts relating to YPE processes, political participation, democracy, and policy formation and implementation processes (see chapter 2). Figure 5.2 presents the structure of my research process and the means through which it approaches the world, citing the chapters in which relevant aspects are addressed.

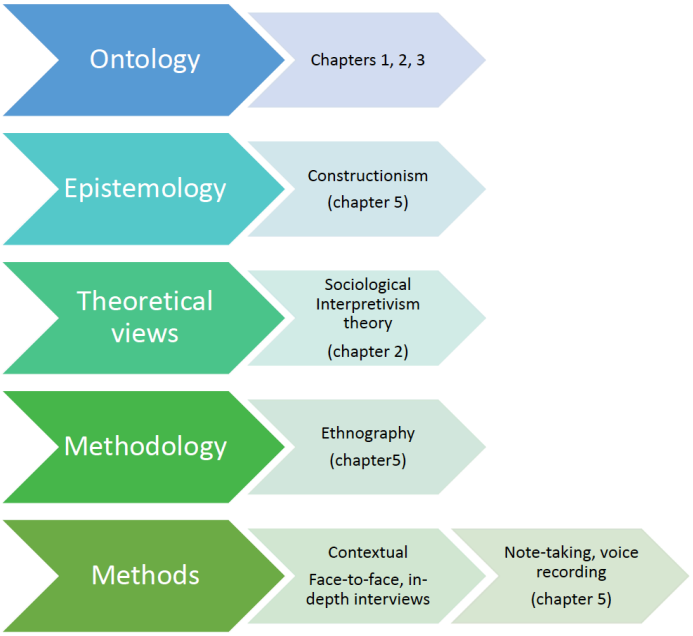

Figure 5.2: This studys structure process

5.5 Ontology and Constructionism

The worldview of researchers forms their perceptions, that however, affect the way in which they inform, consider and analyse research study (Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007). It is essential for researchers to consciously address and understand the philosophical basis for their approach and to acknowledge their own convictions and role in the research process, particularly in qualitative research. The research is situated in the constructionist ontology. To Muntjewerff (2014), ontological suppositions are concerned about what is accepted to form reality. An individual view (asserted or presumed) regarding the kind of reality can be arranged as target or subjective. Objectivism concerns convictions about the existence of reality outside individual ideals and encounters, typically associated with deductive, quantitative research, while subjectivism is the conviction that existent reality is experienced in different ways through individual encounters and experiences, usually used as the basis for inductive, qualitative research (including constructionism).

The ontology of constructionism affirms that social phenomena are experienced by social construction and routine re-examination of inferences by human participants, including researchers themselves (McCluskey, 2013). McDonnell (2016) noted that constructionism posits that all data and cognition depends on human experiences arising from interactions between humans and stimuli they encounter in the world beyond them, filtered and shaped by prevailing social contexts. In constructionism, truth or significance is developed with the mentality, not found, as in constructionism the researcher does not begin with a theory to substantiate or to disprove (i.e. testing hypotheses with quantitative data), rather the aim is to produce theory or identify significance and meaning (Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007). The two paradigms are not absolutely inconsistent, and for practical purposes qualitative research is often useful to explore research areas where there is a dearth of previous knowledge, such as YPE in NDN, which can form the basis for subsequent qualitative studies.

5.6 Epistemology

As mentioned in (5.4), epistemology concerns what can be known about reality, including social reality (Muntjewerff, 2014). Lonka (2014) clarified that epistemology is concentrated on the processes of collecting data and forming knowledge, and the way reality can be signified and portrayed. Interpretivist study recognizes that there might be various clarifications for activities or actions (Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007); furthermore, as a researcher I have subjective ideals of social activity or action that affect the way in which I conduct my research and interpret data (McCluskey, 2013). Consequently, I must acknowledge the role of my own knowledge background and encounters in structuring my analysis and translation of my findings (Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007). My research is dependent on the perception that knowledge and information is socially developed or constructed among individuals, thus the participants understandings and interpretations of encounters are important in the construction of knowledge and information (Anumba et al., 2008).

Furthermore, Wilhoit and Kisselburgh (2015) claim that individuals interpretations are significant products of experience, and researchers cannot completely apprehend the substance of individual encounters, hence they may not have full knowledge of what makes individuals behave in the ways they do (Murphy et al., 2016). As a researcher, I have tried to access the substance (content) of individuals encounters by presenting participants with chances to recount their own stories, in their own words. Nevertheless, Murphy et al. (2016) cautioned that researchers must be wary of a diverse range of potential biases in their encounters with subjects and their cognitive perspectives.

Further explanation regarding the rationale for using constructionism in this study is that I am moved by the contention of Wilhoit and Kisselburgh (2015) that the researcher starts research out of a particular live encounter, because others encounters may be seen in these ways. This appears to resound with the ideals of Murphy et al. (2016), who claimed that the idea of an objective researcher is a delusion; as such, I understand that researchers cannot be absolutely neutral. Witze (2016) also contended that, in social sciences, researchers are de facto members of civil society, who observe and partake in the cultural heritage, so they cannot be objective. Edwards and Brannelly (2017) argued that social phenomena cannot be understood by unbiased objectivity, as espoused in traditional empirical positivism (Anumba et al., 2008; Witze, 2016).

Murphy et al. (2016) claimed that researchers have to examine and assess their stance as enquirers. Thus, this can be paired with constructivism, since the researcher is situated as a co-maker of the information (Hawkes, 2013). According to Mervis (2017), constructionism debates the likelihood of revealing actualities, substances, or realities about discussions, and regard any effort to scrutinise what individuals discuss for its validity and precision as inappropriate. However, the consequence of constructivist/interpretivist research is analytically interpreted by either the participants or researchers.

Ballan (2012) claimed that only social science research is essentially interpretational, and

it merits specifying that personal pronouns are extensively used in this thesis due to the constructivist ontology of this research, which reflects this awareness. My research is based on the affirmation that knowledge is constructed among personalities, and participants comprehensions and interpretations of encounters are vital in the construction or development of knowledge and information.

5.6.1 Interpretive Theoretical Approach:

An interpretive theoretical approach in this research refers to the orientations of social reality which are centred on the goal of understanding individual engagement through social construction of reality (Katovich, 1994). Furthermore, interpretive theory in this study is concerned with understanding how individuals and groups make meaning from their day to day engagement and experiences.

Having clarify how constructionist epistemology is implied in my research questions, I will now discuss the rational for using an interpretive theoretical approach which is informed by Sociological construction of realities.

5.7 Sociological construction of Realities

The sociological construction of realities attached importance to the way that we act, or mindful of our choices regarding our behaviour that proceed from how we interpret situations or make meaning out of situations.

Sociological construction of realities is an interpretive perspective, that was developed Max Weber by adopted by Berger and Luckman (1971), and Bernstein (1976). Which is in line with what this research is informing me. Postulated that:

- Individuals respond toward issues based on the meanings they attribute to those issues.
- That social construction of realities of this issue is resulting from, or develops from, the social cultural interaction which the individuals have with members of the society.
- That social construction give meaning to or are addressed with in and reformed by interpretative process through the individuals perception of issues and experiences (Berger and Luckman, 1971).

In chapter 2, I discussed that young people are organised based on the opportunities or privileges for action they observe. Furthermore, these opportunities that young people perceive emerges from the social-cultural context of their engagement and their individual encounters (2.3). As all these opportunities are addressed and managed by young people when involved in participations (2.4).

Sociological construction attached importance to meaning or how situations are interpreted within the context of YPE (Berger and Luckman, 1971). In this study meaning are the view of individual perceptions, whilst individuals engagement is seen as the qualitative modifications in participation. This research is concern with modification in meaning or interpretation, instead of the word meaning. Furthermore, sociological construction of realities also gives attention to beliefs and notions and behaviours (Bevir, 2000) construed by YPE through interactions (Berger and Luckman, 1971; Cohen, Jere, Lawrence, and Whitney, 1975). Thus, because of various possible interpretations, the sociological construction of realities stresses that a researcher has to act as the actor (participant) and understanding the situation as they perceive it (Katovich, 1994).

Based on the need to understanding YP viewpoints, sociological construction of realities is subjected to analysis on methodological basis, such as functioning from the common belief that the meanings of YP characteristic are from individuals process which could be at face value (Katovich, 1994). Thus, this research clarifies the challenging issues about the appli-

cation of social construction of reality perceptions regarding YP as agents in forming and structuring, as well as limitations inflicted on YP through the social -cultural environments they find themselves. This has been previously discussed in Section 2.2. Which is also in line with Charon (2001).

5.8 Contextual Research Approach

The selection of an appropriate qualitative methodology depends on the study questions and objectives (Rahm, Anderson and Edberg, 2015). Qualitative studies present various approaches of investigations, but Elkatawneh (2016, p.992) identified some common characteristics they have: They take into consideration various interpretation and understandings of the information; they connect with a particular discipline or life circumstance with the goal of accomplishing an all-encompassing outline context; they try to gather information on the impression of the local actor from within, and they explain the means that individuals specifically settings come to comprehend, represent, and act, and get on with their everyday encounters.

In this research, a contextual research outline or design was applied. According to Adams (2016), contextual research is suitable if the study seeks to clarify questions concerning why and how, in which the researcher is not able to influence significant behaviours, concentrating on contemporary events more than abstract theory. Adams (2016) suggested that contextual research may be single or multiple and comprehensive or entrenched, with four methods of reasoning for choosing a single contextual analysis design (contextual approach):

- When the context is critical to empower the researcher to analyse a formulated theory.
- When the context is impactful to empower the researcher to think about an earlier isolated phenomenon, to uncover helpful data.

- Longitudinal context when the researcher decides to analyse (context) at multiple time points (i.e. over time, rather than a snapshot view).

- Agents (representatives) or distinctive (typical) context the single context may be utilized if the agent of that context (with the understanding that lessons gained may be enlightening or different), as well as when the context relates to a peculiar case.

Contextual research is particularly useful when exploring distinctions in the individuality of single contexts (Jobard, 2013). The choice to undertake a single contextual investigation for this study may be situated in the realm of disclosures and distinctive rationales. YPE in NDN, as discussed in chapter 1, has not been substantively explored, thus making this piece of work a unique contribution to the field, which is the essence of a PhD investigation. YPE is generally understood in terms of conference forums (Boulding and Wampler, 2010). Furthermore, according to Cambridge and Torre (2014), some studies included people aged over 30 as YP, which is inconsistent with the provisions of general literature and the international policy and rights framework (i.e. at the UN level). Consequently, this research is pioneering in uncovering some YPE processes and the challenges in NDN.

A second rationale for selecting a single contextual analysis for this research is that conducting multiple contextual analyses requires extensive time and resources, which is beyond the means available to this project by an autonomous postgraduate student (Adams, 2016). Turner and Danks (2014) suggested that single contextual research is a valuable tool, particularly when the researcher has limited means. Additionally, contextual research is encouraged in the policies of many research institutes (Aligical and Sabetti, 2014). Arnold and Lane (2011) also argue that every evaluation research is a contextual study.

Even if a contextual research is encompassing or comprehensive, it is based on the area of investigation. To Adams (2016), the comprehensive aspect concerns the place of the context, including whether a single area of investigation or analysis is used, pertaining to the encompassing or embedded sub-area of study. This research is a single contextual study (i.e. on

NDN YP participation). Furthermore, to support the comprehension of how YPE engagement is motivated and supported, some sub-areas are considered, such as the political parties representatives or agents, the NYC, promotional associations, CSOs, youth development organisations, disabled YP, and male and female experiences, which widen the exploration possible in single context studies (Adams, 2016).

5.9 Qualitative Approach

This study adopts the structure of qualitative approach, as the basis to understand its values and beliefs, as well as methods to consider the study context from participants perspectives (Torre, 2014). Thus, this method strengthens my understanding of YPE by means of their experiences and relevant implications for their access to engagement and policy implementation. This methodology allows me to explore individuals experiences of YP. Following the exploratory and open-ended type of my research question, a qualitative design is used. Qualitative studies are necessary to explore in-depth phenomena relating to interpersonal relations, perceptions and experiences, such as YPE issues, which generally cannot be quantified and, on this basis, the study adopted qualitative study. Furthermore, empirical research aiming to establish preliminary knowledge about a research area and to explore emergent areas of interest, as well as in-depth studies in general, which usually adopts a qualitative approach and these is demonstrated in this research work (Cambridge and Torre, 2014; Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007; Lewis, 2017). Chapter 1 explained that low turnout in YPE has been given little consideration in the context of NDN, thus the qualitative approach was a fitting choice for this research to investigate this under-explored research area.

As YPE phenomena (i.e. qualities or situations in which YP experiences occur) are basically unexplored with regard to NDN (as discussed in chapter 1), it became necessary to use qualitative study instead of quantitative study to explore related issues, as qualitative data would

yield substantive insight to this research. Furthermore, from the beginning of conducting this research I started learning about YPE in more depth, including ways in which to enhance it, and as such, the guiding direction for this could be achieved using methodology an approach, which is not based on a priori assumptions. Thus, this study is essentially a qualitative exploratory investigation of potential ways to enhance YPE in political activities in NDN.

There are numerous potential approaches within the qualitative approach (see 5.3). The sociology of YP views YP as independent social actors who are active participants in the study method, rather than passive subjects (Elkatawneh, 2016). According to Osinska and Bala (2014), researchers are urged to study with instead of on YP. This is conducive to my ultimate aim of helping present YP with more opportunities to actively engage in study procedures and empowering them to characterize study programmes and motivate them with issues significant to them (Stoyanova, 2012). Furthermore, Greenwood, Ellmers and Holley (2014) argue that some researchers utilizing this method seem to support the single contextual approach, characterised by methodology approaches such as note-taking, voice recording, and focus group discussions, which I have adopted in this research (Penn-Edwards, 2012; Williams, 2014).

Contextual approaches are often germane to qualitative studies, enabling researchers to achieve an in-depth appreciation of participants worldview (Fattore and Maggino, 2017), which is particularly useful as participants are likely to be concerned with their own individual lives, with little insight into the substantive issues such as in education and political engagement, thus more effective methods (e.g. structured interviews) are likely to yield rich data (Boulding and Wampler, 2010; Stoyanova, 2012). However, a lot of time is not needed to form relationships and establish rapport with participants, thus contextual research do not requires extensive resources, and time, and it appears to be more suitable to this research as the studied YP are more about trained and educated social actors, as espoused in the sociology of YP (Rahm, Anderson and Edberg, 2015). Furthermore, according to Mand (2012) suggested that in conventional methodologies other YP, can diminishing their position

as social actors to be capable to participate in research strategies (; Rahm, Anderson and Edberg, 2015).

This research is about YPE, and is supported by the sociology of YP, and it uses single contextual procedures (Sanoff, 2011). Creswell and Tashakkori (2007) observed that single contextual research does not requires an extended duration in the study site. As clarified later with regard to ethical considerations, it was not possible to remain engaged in study sites for prolonged periods of time during this studys fieldwork. Furthermore, the required resources, such as finances, the needed time, and training of YP to prepare and empower them as researchers (i.e. active research participants) were not accessible, and I did not have confidence that YP in this research would really participate, because the YP were not present during the preliminary stages of this research, including research question development and methodology selection, as well as subsequent to the fieldwork, during data analysis, interpretation, and findings.

I constantly retained control of my study procedure. On this premise, I agree and share the perspective of Mand (2012): that contextual research is more tailored to service development rather than abstract academic analysis. Table 5.1 presents the pertinent guiding and analytical values and related chapters within the framework adopted in this study, supporting the rationale for adopting a qualitative study. Ultimately, this helped me understand my research context from the participants viewpoints, and consequently to devise potential approaches to strengthen YPE in political activities in NDN.

Table 5.1: Research rationale

Research Design		
Guiding values	**Analysical values**	**Chapters**
Suitable research question, forms and concept of investigation (Lonka, 2014)	Focus on constructionism and immersion of YPE	3, 4, 5
Data Collection and Research Analysis		
Guiding values	**Analysis**	**Chapters**
Understanding issues arising, and outputs from practical engagement work (Rahm, Anderson and Edberg, 2015)	Analysis of facts, values, and opinions in data collection, evaluation, and reflection	5, 6
Contextual principles		
Guiding values	**Analysical values**	**Chapters**
The realm of disclosures and distinctive rationales (Jobard, 2013)	Demonstrating the implications of findings and establishing that the research is relevant to people within the study context	1, 4, 5, 6, 7

5.10 Research Methods

5.10.1 Sampling Strategy

Sampling entails selecting representatives of populations relevant to the research questions (Garcia-Iriarte, OBrien and Chadwick, 2014). As there is no particular number of participants required in qualitative research, some researchers prescribed using the maximum number of participants possible in their studies for the sake of gathering substantive data. However, there are wide inconsistencies in recommended sample sizes in qualitative research. Hornik and OKeefe (2011) proposed a median sample size of 40, while Wan et al. (2014) suggested 10 to 15 as the range, and Hozo, Djulbegovic and Hozo (2005) recommended about 5 to 25.

Muralidharan (2014) encouraged researchers to keep sampling to the point where the reiteration of data is achieved (i.e. data saturation), which confirms that the research has gone as far as it reasonably can, although even in this case more data could support deeper insights on theoretical knowledge (Hawkes, 2013). Furthermore, it may be argued that if researchers have better knowledge or understanding, they can derive more benefit from reiteration and newly collected information. Nagatsuka et al. (2013) contend that immersion is highly beneficial, and Muralidharan (2014) argues that there are no fixed guidelines on when gathering information ends, rather it can be discontinued if the researcher has utilised all means and questions raised during the fieldwork.

My sample target was individuals within NGOs, political party representatives or delegates, government workers, advocates and YP (aged 16-19 and 20-25). The YP sample do not depend on presumptions that YP adapt less to engagement than other age cohorts (Kilic, 2012), and that they do not have a firm, comprehensive approach to political issues. This study recognises that age is not a precise determinant of competence and experiences, and the selection of the lower age of 16 was based on the definition of YP in the Nigerian context,

while 19 is in accordance with the African definition of (young) adulthood (AU, 2006). Thus, in this research, five NGOs and organisations, five political party representatives, 20 YP, and five government workers were included, representing a total of 30 participants (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Total participants: Author's Compilation (2019)

Age cohort	**Male**	**female**	**Sum-total**
16 - 17	2	2	4
18 - 22	5	2	7
23 -25	5	4	10
Core participants	6	4	9
Sum-total	18	12	30

The core participants were chosen from government establishments and organisations that advocate YPE. Core participants were individuals with well-informed knowledge about the study problems and questions, who were willing to share their views and concerns (Hooper et al., 2015). Since the research participants were from different government establishments, I used slightly different interview guides. For instance, participants from the development organisations were questioned regarding how they get YP involved in YP development policy, while participants from NGOs were questioned regarding how campaigning for YP inclusion was presented and how it can be implemented in the development policy (see appendices E and F).

The core participants were chosen on the premise of their insight about YP participation policy. Those from federal establishments was selected since they were effectively engaged with making and implementing policy for YPEs by putting up some schemes relevant to the YP selected for inclusion in this research. Core participants in NGOs were selected because of their role in campaigns, demonstrations, or protests for the implementation of YP participation policies (Sofaer, 2013). Such participants can be assumed to be relatively

well-informed about the pertinent issues and experiences. 20 YP participated in the samples, drawn from two participatory schemes recognised by the federal government (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Core participants

Age	**Federal govt. institutions**	**NGOs**	**Sum-total**
16	0	3	3
18	5	2	7
23	7	3	10
Sum-total	12	8	20

The nature of participants was in some cases determined from my visits to their homes and local communities. While a generally mixed sample was used in terms of socio-economic background, this characteristic was not in itself of primary concern to this study, but YPE was noticeably lower among poorer YP in the schemes, and there was little evidence of attempts to motivate them to engage in politics. At the time of my research fieldwork there were no disabled YP in the participatory schemes.

5.10.2 Participation and Ethics

Since this study is concerned with YP, informed consent (the process of obtaining permission before conducting a research) was utilised from the involved YP, their organisations and NGOs or agencies. A summary of the proposed research with a covering letter was presented and given to every stakeholder, necessitating a signature to confirm acknowledgement of the research questions and their voluntary participation. Ethical observances are presented in depth in 5.13.

5.10.3 Summary

The research approach adopted in presenting this research work is contextual research method, targeted to NGOs, agencies, and organisations, surrounded by YP and stakeholders (Capano and Lippi, 2016). The site and study context were motivating, and I used a context-based approach (Kilic, 2012), with informed, voluntary consent of participants and stakeholders.

5.11 Data Collection Methods

5.11.1 What Data is Relevant?

From my framed research questions (5.2.1), the following data are relevant to this research:

- Meeting with YP involved in participation in NDN.
- Recording the views and opinions of elders and YP regarding their experiences of engagement and involvement in NDN
- Examining organisational policy objectives and literature concerning YP involvement and participation in general and in NDN
- Assessing and analysing the extent of resources and information provided to facilitate engagement processes in NDN

5.11.2 What Data to Collect

Building on my comprehension of the developing issues, my preliminary analysis of the data collected generated the following list: organisational literature and polices, questionnaire information, semi-structured interviews, and notes from group work discussions.

5.11.3 Focus Group

Interviews are mostly used for data gathering tools in qualitative research (Hawkes, 2013), and they appear to be relatively economical in terms of time and other resources (Appiah-Poku, Newton and Kass, 2011). Hence interviewing is the primary approach utilized for this research, namely face-to-face, in-depth interviews with political party representatives and YP organisations, and focus group discussion with YP in NDN. Information was gathered from groups comprising three to five YP. While interviews should be inherently reciprocal, there is an inbuilt power imbalance against interviewees (Muralidharan, 2014), however the closeness and rapport among focus group discussion members possibly adjusts the control for appropriation and enables YP to express their thoughts more freely and with more confidence (Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007).

Group interviews are beneficial when participants are similar and amenable to each other, as a highly efficient source of data due to the interactions arising among participants with in-depth knowledge and experience of the researched phenomena. However, Levinson (2017) cautioned that careful management is needed to ensure that focus group interviews run smoothly, particularly to facilitate universal and equal participation, so that one participant does not overshadow the group. As this research did not depend on individual or family data, but rather individuals and focus group discussions with YP in NDN are appropriate for this study.

To avoid problems, Williams (2014) recommended the use of non-provocative questions in interview groups. I did not have any issues in recruiting individuals for group discussions, since I have already identified YP as my existing group participant within the study, so my potential participant commenced through contacts with friends and associates who knew or have contact with YP organisations. While the interviews were in English, I simply selected the age cohorts of 16-19 and 20-25 to study these cohorts experiences in more depth. The primary information used in this research is from NDN for the period from October 2016 to

July 2017. Information was derived from two distinct areas in NDN: Rivers State and Edo State Region (referred to as Rivers and Edo (see 1.1). This study was conducted in these sub-regions representative of the contextual research study.

Booking appointments with some core informants was particularly challenging. In some circumstances, officials refused or neglected to keep to the arrangements and times, and I had to reschedule on various occasions. With a restricted time to utilize it properly, I ventured out to the communities to conduct interviews on days when I did not have busy arrangements in Rivers. I conducted 10 focus group interviews in these areas with YP (five in Rivers and five in Edo), each of which comprised 5-8 participants and lasted for one to two hours. My initial two group interviews (with three and five participants) were straightforward, because no participants dominated or controlled the engagement. The later group discussions were more difficult because some participants apparently controlled the discussion, but other participants challenged their actions in such cases.

The form of discussions used in the focus groups allowed the YP to express themselves freely by sharing their views on issues. For instance, when some YP said that voting could be done online or electronically, and people should be allowed to do so, others challenged them, contending unequivocally that it was the duty of the Electoral Commission and a government decision on whether voting should be facilitated electronically. Some debated that not every individual has access to electronic voting. Some contended and debated other peoples views, and in some cases genuinely laughed out loud, which I accepted as a naturalistic feature of a genuine and fruitful discussion group, without condescending or hostile implications. As the participants in each group knew each other and were essentially colleagues, they did not feel threatened by such familiar debating features.

5.11.4 Semi-Structured Interviews

A total of 20 semi-structured interviews were conducted with participants from Rivers (n=8) and Edo (n=12), characterized as officials involved in YP party enrolment and YP inclusion in informal kinds of engagement, for example volunteers with an interest YP political matters, NGOs, and organisations.

I developed an interview guide before starting my interviews to have structure and directions (Creswell and Tashakkori, 2007), to ensure necessary questions were asked, making allowance for emergent areas of interest to be explored (Villicana, Rivera and Garcia, 2017). A guide allows various individuals to participate in a methodical and extensive way (Barkar and Rich, 1992). Creswell and Tashakkori (2007) suggest that at least four open-ended questions are advisable for an interview guide. The meeting guide utilized as a part of the examination had six open-ended inquiries. Some authors recommend a pilot study to check the suitability of questions (Muralidharan, 2014; Adams, 2016), but Ekatawneh (2016) claimed that it is inadequate to pre-study the interview guide by making inquiries of some participants in in-depth qualitative research, because individuals social and cultural lives are different and complex, thus he suggested that methodological observations should be undertaken before the interviewing commences. Since I am acquainted with my study context and engaging in discussions that relate to my research with some of the organisations that participated in this research, a pilot study was not considered necessary.

With participants permission, a small voice recorder was used during interviews. This prevented me from becoming immersed in notetaking, enabling me to monitor and follow discussions (Muralidharan, 2014). However, Tseung-Wong and Verkuyten (2016) argued that note-taking is more effective than interview recording and preparing recorded interview data (i.e. writing transcriptions) is laborious, but comprehensive note-taking would inevitably divert the researchers attention from what actual participant discussions, which would make the study vulnerable to missing key data (Villicana, Rivera and Garcia, 2017). Due to the

latter concern, I recorded the interviews, and I found that subsequently replaying and revising the recordings while writing transcripts enabled me to achieve data immersion and to understand and command this primary data with mastery, identifying key emergent themes and concepts that facilitated subsequent analysis.

Data triangulation was used in this research, with data from roundtable discussions, informal interviews, and reports and documents. Triangulation addresses the impact, qualities, and shortcomings of multiple data sources, to achieve a comprehensive overview of the data (McCluskey, 2013). Data triangulation refers to using more than one particular method to comprehend the phenomena, for instance, data from different sources, analyses, and theories (Hong, Chen, and Chen, 2015). Ballan (2012) argued that triangulation allows for a comprehensive understanding of researched phenomena. As with the use of multiple data methods per se, the simple use of more methods is not a justification in itself, rather the important thing is that the methods and analysis are conducive to achieving the study aim (Ross and Onwuegbuzie, 2014). Doody and Noonan (2013) argued that data triangulation is advisable for in-depth research requiring precision and rigor, particularly when exploring complex human systems and relations.

Diedenhofen and Musch (2015) argue that there may be some possibility of different data outcomes complementing each other, but there is no assurance that the derivations included will be exact (Sansanwal, 2015). In adopting data triangulation in this research, I was encouraged to convey every significant issue relating to this study rather than simply justifying one approach without another (Jackson, 1998). According to Nelson (2013), data triangulation is highly relevant to the investigation of complex inter-personal phenomena, enabling a broader understanding to emerge, as such this research adopted a triangulation method.

5.11.5 How to Analyse the Data

As a starting point and given the evidence and material available, I initially considered analysis of values and opinions emergent from gathered data; and qualitative analysis and data reflection. After commencing this exercise, it become clear that certain research practices are particularly useful regarding central concepts in my research (Muntjewerff, 2014). Based on such considerations, it is fundamentally important that the questions are clear, to ensure maximum relevance; Creswell and Tashakkori (2007, p.27), suggested the following elements of clarity:

- Clear data needs to be explicit and easy to understand.
- Specific data should be sufficient and precise for it, to clear what forms an answer.
- Answerable it is necessary to produce data required to answer the question, and how these data will be gathered.
- Interconnected questions should be related and significant, forming a coherent narrative.
- Substantively relevant questions should be meaningful and well-formed to direct the study itself and the research area in general.

5.12 Data Analysis Framework

The data was thematically analysed according to the constructionist, approach I adopted. I formed and labelled sections of information to delineate what I perceived to really matter in the raw data. Coding refines information, categorises it, and presents ways to highlight commonalities and contrasts in data sections (Hawkes, 2013). The marks or labels could be joined to sentences, phrases, and words, as well as whole sections, to refine emergent

patterns into reasonable sections amenable to analysis and interpretation by the researcher (Villicana, Rivera and Garcia, 2017), facilitated by focused coding (Hawkes, 2013). To allow for familiarisation, I the researcher transcribed recorded interview data personally. Petrs and Halcomb (2015) suggested that researchers should endeavour to transcribe all interviews personally, since this strengthens familiarisation with the phenomena under exploration.

Interview records were electronically coded in this study. Both manual and electronic coding have advantages and disadvantages. Put simply, manual coding is preferred for greater data immersion and in-depth understanding, while electronic coding is logistically easier and facilitates faster but less deep analysis. Niu, Wang and Zhu (2013) suggested that the selection of manual or electronic coding depends on the project size, available resources, and the passion and proficiency of the researcher. Choi (2012) argued that any research that has multiple respondent electronic coding is effective and imperative. As such, recorded interviews were coded with Atlas.ti 6 (Giordano et al., 2011).

There is some debate regarding the size of information to code after gathering data. Choi (2012) encouraged amateur researchers to code any information gathered during fieldwork, while Hawkes (2013) argued that transcripts for interviews should be coded comprehensively, with coding formed line-by-line. Different research scholars of constructionist theory argue that definite coding is not really necessary, and propose section by-section coding (Choi, 2012). The suggestions of Choi (2012) were used in this research through coding in sections. For example, I coded the whole participant response to questions by forming two sections, where there were multiple responses or conflicting ideas.

Choi (2012) structured 29 unique (though not fundamentally unrelated) methods for coding and contended that deciding the coding strategy is affected by the paradigm and theoretical method of each research work. In adherence to the constructionist, interpretative paradigm underpinning this research, as well as to show respect for YP voices with positive information analysis in their views (cf. the sociology of YP and YPE rights) (Choi, 2012, p.3), in-vivo

codes were utilized from the inception of the coding process. Forming coding, as the name suggests, is the stage where transcripts of interviews are first separated into isolated portions. In-vivo coding uses coordinate dialect of respondents to codes instead of words or expressions produced by the researcher (Choi, 2012) as a way to protect the views and means of the respondent (Hawkes, 2013).

Xion (2013) suggested that in-vivo codes are valuable toward the start of coding when researchers are gathering thoughts. Initial coding produced 166 codes. Since there is no baseline prescription for the number of codes, Xion (2013) suggested that researchers should be alert and guard against producing excessive codes, which could impede analysis of data by software, and 130-300 codes is highly effective for analysis in most studies.

Focus coding was used in the second round of coding. Focus codes look for the often-used coding created in the beginning of the coding phase to form unnoticeable sets', as the research needs to make necessary choices regarding which starting coding is conducive to analytical meanings (Hawkes, 2013). The objective is to form thematic and conceptual meanings from the sets of codes associated with a variety of items from the initial phase of coding (Choi, 2012). As coding progresses, it becomes progressively harder to keep using in-vivo codes. Xion (2013) claims that it is irrational to gather numerous in-vivo codes and not form them. I produced descriptive coding that stuck to the information corpus, then I put all the coding with similar meanings together and retitled the coding to suit similar items, which helped move the data from being descriptive to abstract (Hawkes, 2013; Xion, 2013) For instance, the starting codes such as youth respect for elders', 'poor sanitation', 'drug abuse', 'early pregnancy' and 'HIV/AIDS' were combined and renamed as concern issues'.

In using Atlas.ti6 programming in forming sets and sub-sets, I initially used the code manager tool to form coding groups or families. For instance, I made the code group or family self-enthusiasm and sub-sets including encounters, monetary remuneration, and skills acquisition. Philanthropic passions was also used as code group or family coding with the sub-sets of

gender empowerment, YP spokesperson, and partisanship. Similarly, the two sub-sets (2) self-enthusiasm and philanthropic passions were considered under the theme encouragement to participation (Figure 5.3).

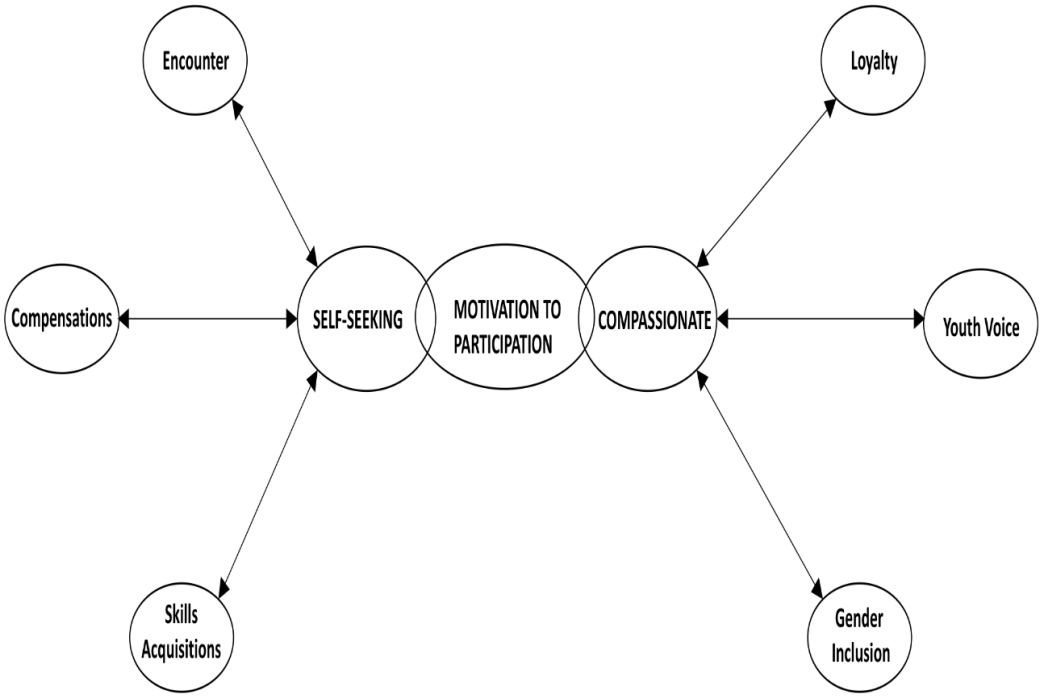

Figure 5.3: This studys structure process

A total of 65 codes were formed using focus coding. Xion (2013) argues that toward the finishing phase of the second coding, one should have approximately 49-69 codes. To produce coding in the whole study process, the researcher used notes to recall in-depth dialogue and contextual information (Dunne, 2011, p118). Hawkes (2013) described notes as reminders and informal analytical memos that a researcher generates as the study progresses to keep the analysis pegged to the original contextual data. They also enable the research to begin foreshadowing the in-depth data analysis that follows the data processing, with preliminary links to the broader theoretical framework and related literature (Villicana, Rivera and Garcia, 2017). Note taking or memos were used in Atlas.ti6 as an analytical diary. Figure **??** demonstrates the link between method, research question and data collection.

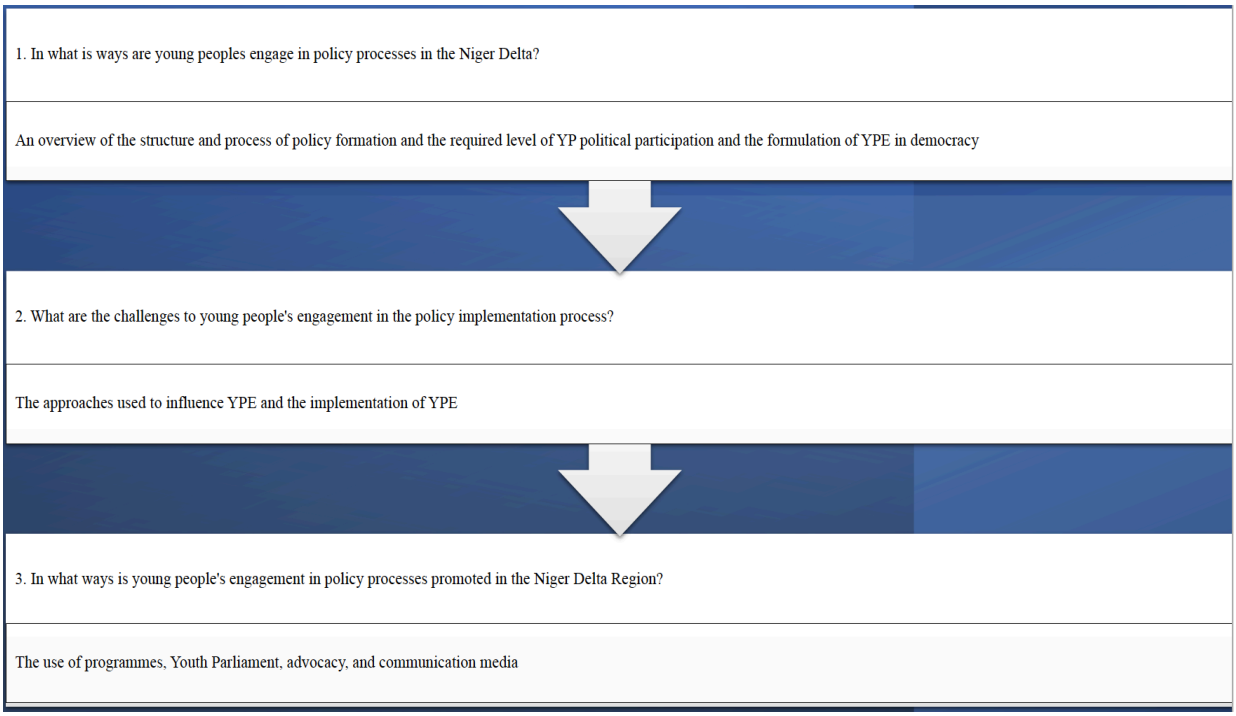

Figure 5.4: Research questions and findings

5.13 Research Plan

My research plan, as demonstrated below, outlines the contemporary research on YPs engagement and policy process. To clarify this discussion, I will identify issues of concern regarding this research study. Based on my research questions, the research study required the exploration of YPE and policy process, and it was vital that the fieldwork was carried out within the available period of time (see 5.17) (Dunne, 2011, p.118; Kilic, 2012; Hawkes, 2013). The fieldwork period coincided with YP (aged 16-19 and 20-25) in schools and universities being on holiday, which gave me a better opportunity to access them and thus to source good data for analysis in this research work. This judicious selection of the period for fieldwork and coordination of available logistical and personal resources enabled me to carry out the proposed study effectively from October 2016 to January 2017.

5.13.1 Contextual Considerations

As a result of the literature explorations, I derived the following key contextual venues in which YP experience much of their lives:

- Educational (school, college, and university)
- Ministries (public servants and civil servants)
- Family
- Leisure/ social community
- Political

At the outset of collecting the information, the feedback from the group members indicated that, within this list of contextual values or settings, the following three settings were considered to provide more conducive areas in which YP would be able and willing to relate their experiences and views:

- School
- Community
- Leisure/ social community

5.13.2 Research Phases

Table 5.4 shows the phases of the research and related methods.

Table 5.4: The comprehensive structure of the research work

Preparation	**Site Selection**	**Objectives**	**Date**
Data collection	Edo and Rivers States	Suitable sites	October 2016 - January 2017
Analysis	Anglia Ruskin University	Interview field notes	

5.13.3 Time Frame

The research fieldwork was conducted during the period October 2016 to January 2017. Planning my research in this way was plainly guided by the contextual approach, requiring that I achieved an in-depth coverage of the data. Furthermore, it also presented ethical consideration to the time commitment of the research participants, which then enabled a continual analysis, although my fieldwork phases match the methodological requirements of this study for adjustment and participant support. Thus, this October to January, period was a viable time for my fieldwork, within the limitations of my PhD study and other available resources (time and finance). Table 5.5 demonstrates the timeline.

5.13.4 Equipment

As explained in 5.21 I used the data analysis software Atlas ti6. I also used the following equipment in this research"

- Rooms (classrooms, offices, libraries, open places)
- Computers (laptop and desktop)
- Audio-recorder

- USB (Seagate hard drives)
- Mobile telephone
- Pen and notebook

5.13.5 Volume of Data: Data Handling and Critical Incident Charting

A significant volume of digital data was generated. The reason for considering this approach was to do away with voluminous, time-consuming copying and typing during the duplication and transference of data. Furthermore, my use of a single PC stabilised the pace and benefited from portability. However, I also adopted a critical incident charting method, which was very helpful because it allows YP to relate their experience. YP were requested to recall momentous critical occasions in their engagement activities in policy formulation and if possible, its implementations through dissuasions. Based on this contextual approach, it was possible to understand momentous occasions in YPs lives which assisted me in my data analysis and aided me during the research work.

5.13.6 Summary

My research plan was structured based on the response to the research questions, as an effective and contextual approach, engaging data collection methods fundamentally relevant to the methodology. The time frame was between October 2016 to January 2017. I also demonstrated a period of intense data gathering and analysis with YP. Design checks were utilised to ensure research credibility, and positive behaviours approach was employed to strengthen relations with YP. Equipment usage for data gathering was designed to enable tractability and effectiveness.

5.14 Ethical Considerations

Research on contextual current phenomena must stringently adhere to standard ethical procedures and expectations (Adams, 2016). As ethical concerns are very important to research study, ethics could be considered as a code of conduct. Thus, according to Hawkes (2013) ethics is defined as morals and values sustained at the time of interactions when collecting data and dissemination of findings.

The UK research conduct is based on the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2004), furthermore, applying the guidelines supports to ensure that research activities could be organised and trusted. The BERA (2011) standards stresses on five angles that need attentions, such as the individual, knowledge, democratic principles, research quality and educational freedom (p.7). Therefore, validity, generalisability, credibility, and reporting are considered to be ethical issues, along with developing on correct literatures as well as accepting criticism. Nevertheless, there are some developing issues that arise when conducting research on YPE. These is concerned with voluntary informed consent, such as, the YPs right of expression, expected detriment, the YPs interests, disclosure and privacy.

Thus, since this research study is focus on YP, an informed consent was required from the participating YPs, NGOs and all the stakeholders involved. A summary of the intended research as well as cover letter was offered to every participant, necessitating their signatures to approve their acceptance of this research study (5.13.2). Again, participants were told they are free to withdraw at any time within the research process for any or no reason (5.13.4). Understanding YPs research positioned their voices as significant to this research study. More so, there is vital meaning in working with YPs as a researcher to discuss their encounters. This approach appears to have contributed positively as YPs relate their various experiences.

To handle all issues regarding protecting the participants identities, all the research participants were presented with the privilege to remain anonymous (5.13.3). I clearly explain that

this research was about YPs engagement with regards to academic research.

5.15 Negotiation and Access

This study is in accordance with the guidelines of the British Educational Research Association (2011), and within Anglia Ruskin University of Research Ethics Framework, and it will be disseminated through the journal and book publications.

I initially requested consent from my research sites in order for them and their organisations to participate (see section 5.5). I sent request letters for access to Youth Commissions and NGOs. Though I got quick responses from two of the Commissions granting me access, a further two did not reply to me. As I was in Chelmsford (UK) at the time, prior to traveling to Nigeria I wrote to one of my friends in Port Harcourt (the capital of NDN) and asked him to send the letters to the gatekeepers (i.e. administrative personnel) on my behalf, but they also refused to respond to him. Repeated queries secured phone numbers for one the commissions directors. I called the number when I got to Nigeria, to remind him of my request for a letter of access and to meet him for an interview. He pleaded that he was very busy, and he promised to make time to give me a call soon, but he subsequently did not, so I called a week later, and he said he was away, but he would get back to me when he returned. He subsequently did not return my calls or reply to my emails.

However, I was able to access this commission by a third person, due to snowball sampling (by chance). Shortly after conducting an interview with a particular core informant we were talking about general issues, and if I was enjoying my stay in NDN, and as we talked, I discussed my dissatisfaction in accessing information from establishments, specifying one of the commissions, which he had mentioned earlier in our interview. He told me that one of the directors in the Ministry was a family friend, and he would be able to connect me with him. To my surprise he phoned the director in my presence and appealed to him to support

me as much as he could in my data collection. I booked an appointment with the director and he subsequently granted me an interview.

One of the commissions refused to reply to my request letter. When I went to their office I was allowed in and I was directed to the organisational secretary, to whom one of my friends had referred me as a contact person. I was taken to the regional coordinator by the secretary. Our discussions continued to progress, and he questioned me regarding my village, family, and academic background. When he learned of the place where I grew up, he inquired whether I knew the Community Chief, and I replied yes. He revealed to me that they were friends, and that he had grown up in that community, and it was the first place he was posted to when he started work. He gave me a warm welcome and took me to another two sub-regional coordinators responsible for the programmes supporting YPE. Thus, although this commission refused to reply to my letters and calls officially, I gained access due to these informal networks, and I was able to conduct interviews with the regional coordinators through referral by a third person. These encounters demonstrated the importance of informal relations and personal contacts and their superiority to official channels in arranging access to political agencies or organisations in Nigeria (Doerr, Suver and Wilbanks, 2016).

5.15.1 Consent

As this research did not try to evoke sensitive or delicate personal issues and familial data, I did not seek consent from the participants parents, rather I sought consent from YP themselves, which in addition to being an intrinsic ethical responsibility for my research serves to emphasise that these YP were effective and capable social actors, based on the context of this study.

Bogle (2011) cautioned that researchers should view YP as citizens having agency, acknowl-

edging that they are competent to contribute to decisions relating to them. I faced some challenges to this position on two occasions, when I sought consent from the parents of two YP with whom I needed to engage in group discussions. The related focus group discussion was to be conducted on 23rd December 2016, but due to festive activities the participants parents restricted them from going out, because they were from a community around five miles from the focus group discussion venue. When they told their father about the focus group discussion, he declined to let them go, supposing they were using it as an excuse to attend sight-seeing excursions in the community. At that point, I and one of the coordinators made a trip to the town to meet and request permission from their fathers, explaining that the YP were part of a genuine research project, whereupon the father gave his consent immediately, particularly as he was a friend of the coordinator. When we finished the group discussion, I undertook to send them home in a taxi, and I phoned their father less than an hour later to ensure they had arrived home safely. He expressed gratitude and was very happy with the experience.

It was a requirement to sign a participant consent form before participation. Again, consent was viewed as a progressing verbal process, and participants were continually reminded they could withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason (Doerr, Suver and Wilbanks, 2016). Choi (2012) argued that requesting that participants sign consent forms is unsatisfactory as a genuine, standard ethical practice, and in some cultural contexts, it is culturally insensitive and inappropriate to ask participants to fill in consent forms and also it is an ARU policy and you are required to show your consent forms when requested (Gerver, 2014; Sil and Das, 2017).

Nevertheless, procedures normally associated with the informed consent process were observed, including informing participants about the study scope and goals, the way information would be used and kept, and their rights of participation and withdrawal, as explained above. Ajoub (2013) argued that informed consent educates participants regarding the study and requesting them to fill consent forms. I used a consent form and data sheet (as pre-

sented in the appendices), which shows that I asked for any participant who wanted to be recognised by excerpts of comment to fill and sign the appropriate form, which I presented to them before we started the interviews. I noticed that many of the participants did not first read through before signing the consent form, so I read through the forms with them and asked if they had any questions or wished for any clarification before they handed me their signed consent.

5.15.2 Anonymity and Confidentiality

Getting consent is linked to anonymity and confidentiality (Zahle, 2017). Confidentiality includes ensuring the safety, trust and privacy of respondents to objectively and openly express their views and to provide them with opportunities to inform relevant research authorities if they suffer any abuse or seek confirmation. Also, it makes participants more comfortable during the process when they know their data will be managed professionally and with care. Anonymity and confidentiality commit the researcher to look after respondents, so they will not be harmed as a result of their participation.

As this research does not request personal or sensitive information, rather (political persuasions is person) I did not require participant disclosures, but I recognized that sensitive information may be given through consent within the data process, so I maintained a high level of confidentiality, particularly regarding some instances wherein some participants disclosed personal and political sensitive issues, which often emerge in qualitative research (Badenhorst, 2014). In order to address such difficulties, Mand (2012) argued that researchers should inform participants about confidentiality limits, regarding when and how data should be kept and with what limits (Jobard, 2013).

Participant names and study sites are not disclosed so as to ensure and protect potential harm and identity of participants (research anonymity). Cornock (2014) argued that anonymity

is valuable and necessary for participants and research sites to be recognised, for other researchers to justify their work. Cornock (2014) stressed that it is often very difficult to ensure absolute anonymity. Siegfriend (2014) also argued that the principles of anonymity should be questioned, noting that refusing recognition of this fact is an ethical problem that can be damaging, such as if participants can be identified from reported data. I understood from this that requesting that participants sign a disclosure form could be insufficient to allay their fears concerning confidentiality, anonymity, and consent or disclosure. However, Appiah-Poku, Newton and Kass (2011) argued that some participants may wish to be recognised in study reports and they may have a feeling of being disappointed if their recognition is undisclosed. Consequently, all the participants involved in this research were requested to sign a secondary consent form if they wanted their names to be mentioned in this research.

As discussed earlier, I was surprised to see some participants not reading the form before signing, although some of the participants read it over and over before signing the form, expressing that they understood and complied to agree to be recognised in the research, but some actively requested that I did not quote them in the research (in addition to implicitly requesting this by not signing the consent form for being cited). I asked myself why such participants signed the general consent form, since they did not wish to be recognised, and I understood that the participants who did not wish to be recognized were participants working as staff of the organisations affiliated to government establishments. This is because they are government officials and administrative officers, and it appeared to me that they do not wished to be recognised in regard to discussing negative issues that relate to politics.

5.15.3 Participation and Payment

In any research, the participants are always believed to be volunteers and as such they are free from potential pressures that could pervert the veracity of data generated. Thus, it is potentially unethical to proffer rewards for participation, to prompt or coerce participants.

Zingales (2014) argued that researchers should not pay participants, because it is unethical and inappropriate, and contravenes ethical principles, and stressed that presenting rewards to participants may be compelling, which would not allow them to withdraw at their wish. However, in some cultural contexts participants may expect or demand rewards as a matter of course (May, 2010).

I never thought of incentives for my participants before I got to Port Harcourt; what I had in mind was traveling expenses and light refreshments for group interviews. However, as the information gathering went on, I noticed that there was no need for me to give them refreshments and travel expenses, since the YP organisations were recognised groups that meet often, so I simply met them on their normal meeting time and day.

I experienced the concept of financial reward with one of the regional co-ordinators in charge of youth skill acquisition, a gatekeeper who requested N4000 naira (20) for phone calls, to organise some YP for group discussions, holding a meeting, and orchestrating me to meet the youngsters. He said the money was a motivation to get airtime for the phone calls. I tried to explain to him the principles of ethics regarding rewards, but he questioned how valuable my findings were to him by spending his money on telephone credit for my benefit.

I faced this dilemma and concluded that access to the YP in question was useful to my research, thus I understood that only he (the gate-keeper) could give access and he needed to contact these people through phone calls, including the coordinator, thus I gave him the requested N4000 naira. I made this calculated decision based on the significance of the participants thus acquired to my research, and in this case he was the only focal participant who could help me succeed, since the participant was not willing to volunteer without me contributing call/ phone charges and could not be substituted, thus at that point I had to give him such recharge card so as to enabling my data collection.

5.16 Reflexivity

This research is in compliance with the paradigm of constructivism, whereby I explained the contextual circumstances regarding my research and the way I understand the context to be useful to my findings (see 5.8). Garcia-Iriarte, OBrien and Chadwick (2014) argue that the individual context of the researcher may influence the study process, as the inability to identify the role of a researcher in the findings has ethical and methodological consequences (5.14).

I was born and schooled in NDN, from elementary school to the end of my first degree in Sociology and Anthropology. The first time I arrived in the UK was for a postgraduate programme in International Social Development, and when I finished, I went back to Nigeria to work with the NGO I formerly served as the Coordinator for Relief Materials for Disaffected Youths. For four years I worked with NDN YP before I decided to pursue a PhD programme. With my experiences in the UK and in NDN I could see myself as either an insider or outsider in numerous different situations. As a native of NDN I intrinsically know the culture of NDN people as an insider, and as an outsider I have been educated in the UK and have travelled to many European countries and the US for conferences or holidays. These perspectives can affect research.

Insider researchers explore groups of people with whom they have common awareness and belonging, and they are likely to be recognised as such (if not personally) by participants, and also to be given access to data that outsiders may not easily reach, again, I have had a personal, lived experience of the research area (Knight, 2017). Outsider researchers are generally considered less prone to bias about data collected and less inclined to subjectively interpret data, as outsiders notice what insiders may consider ordinary and be blind to (Simonoff and Fu, 2014). Thus, Bauder (2016) argues that such orientations ought to be acknowledged and emphasised by researchers in interpreting their data, and the impact of outsider or insider status relative to the context of participants. In becoming an outside or

insider I experienced some positive and challenging issues, as discussed below.

The status of the researcher in terms of gender, age, class, or education relative to participants can affect the nature and value of information generated (Simonoff and Fu, 2014). Simon (2012) suggested that some researchers are often challenged by additional ethical and methodological issues in this regard. My encounters during fieldwork substantiate this. While I gave all participants due regard, trying to demonstrate positive behavioural approaches with participants, some viewed me as very young, and in some interviews, they alluded to me as my fellow boy, my man, and paddy (a friend), and some tried to dominate the interview with their position. For instance, one participant refused to let me interview him in his office, saying it was very hot and his office air conditioning was not working because of fluctuating electricity. I proposed that we conducted the interview under the tree in front of his office, since it was quiet and open, but he insisted that we sit in a noisy corridor with many people passing, thus the background noise was very disruptive during the interview itself and subsequent transcription. Indeed, he periodically summoned passers-by to discuss work-related issues, disturbing the interview process. Since he had rescheduled the interview four times already, I was reluctant to challenge this or attempt to forcefully reorient the interview toward a more stringent approach, and I was merely thankful that he had made this limited time available to me.

Some of my participants were of similar age to me and they considered me to be their friend, and they even discussed the interview with me on this basis (Simon, 2012). For instance, I was on my way driving to see a participant to interview him in the office, then he called me to tell me he was leaving his office, and since I was on my way we met in-between at the United Nations Development Centre in Port Harcourt, and we used their reception for the interview. Again, some YP considered me to be a privileged person because I am studying in the UK, which is inaccessible to most Nigerians. Since they were college students, hoping to secure admission into university, they viewed me as a potential resource and they discussed their university ambitions with me. Thus, because I was older than them, they called me big

brother to show cultural respect.

The positive behaviour approach I demonstrated to participants varied between groups and it became useful to my research or field work. During the interview sections in some circumstances I was viewed variously as an insider or as an outsider. The discussions I had with government officials at the NDYDC were characterised by their perception that I was a young person, researching how the government engages with YP, as such I was consider as an outside. According to Simon (2012), collecting data from this type of people can be challenging. Overall, my experience of the fieldwork was beneficial, albeit challenging, and some of my participants were concerned about whether my research was for purely academic purposes or if it had professional implications for them.

During my fieldwork I was questioned in some circumstances concerning whether I was partnered with the UNDP. In such contexts, I was regarded as an outsider researcher collecting data for foreign bodies or organisations. For instance, I asked for permission to see assessment reports on YP development programmes, and I was told these are confidential and non-staff members cannot have access to such documents; the gatekeeper in this case said this was because I was not from her tribe. This influenced the nature of data I acquired on some issues, for example regarding gender, education, and ethnicity attributes of YP in my research. However, I manage to get the needed data from some staff from the same ethnic background (i.e. tribe) as me. For such staff I was an insider, which shows that they had confidence and believed in me and allowed me to have access. This demonstrated some ethical challenges involved in attempting to avoid complication and evasion to achieve genuine research objectives using unconventional strategies.

My relationships with YP varied among the cohorts, but I was universally considered to be an insider and YP were not apprehensive in their interactions with me. I noticed that they were encouraged by my exploration and were willing to discuss their encounters and perceptions with me. I was surprised that they called me to attend one of their TV shows as

an observer. This goes to show that being an insider or an outsider was not a static issue, and particular circumstances in each interpersonal interaction came to the fore to determine how I was viewed by research participants. Since I was conducting research in NDN and I am from there, one might assume that I was a natural insider, but as described previously such assumptions were not always correct.

However, because of the quality of my study, I experienced challenging issues that I was not expecting. My research was about government support for youth engagement structures in political processes in NDN. In view of the issues discussed, it appears that some participants could have discussed some positive and non-beneficial things concerning government support for youth political engagement in NDN. This appears significant in view of the political issues surrounding NDN youth participation processes. Furthermore, having access to government agencies was an issue because of politics, since I did not belong to any political party and I used to work with an NGO, which has potent inferences related to the way the government approaches youth issues, as I did not allow this to affect my responses to the views of the participants. My position may have been known to the directors of youth agencies, and they may have consequently decided to prevent me from accessing their offices. I cannot substantiate this beyond speculation and the wall of silence I received in response to some queries, but it is difficult to think of any other reasons why some directors would refuse to reply to my request letter, particularly when personnel subsequently proved to be extremely accommodating due to personal factors. Nevertheless, I processed the resultant data from a conventional academic perspective.

5.17 Research Evaluation

Adams (2016) suggested that concepts like generalisation, validity and reliability need to be questioned in social and political science research because they conceptualise using psycho-

metrics (measuring capacities and process), which can decontextualize people. Jobard (2013) argued that the basic rule of interpretivism and constructionism is the importance of contextualising meanings, along with reality being constructed socially; consequently, concepts like objectivity and dependability, or reliability and validity, are useful for constructionism research. The concept of trustworthiness was proposed in order to assess the thoroughness of constructivist research study. Aligical and Sabetti (2014) suggested that trustworthiness pertains to being fair and balanced, and conscientiously assessing different views, interests and realities. Elkatawneh (2016) argues that trustworthiness initiated in constructivist research uses procedures that offer truth and values by means of transferability, applicability and credibility, with consistency by dependability, and a lack of bias through confirmability. My research attains trustworthiness through the use of the stated constructionist procedures.

- Credibility

Credibility pertains to the precision of information. Aligical and Sabetti (2014) urged research analysts to reveal any professional and individual information which can influence data collection. I highlighted this in my ethical consideration and research reflexivity (see section 5.9). Data triangulation of various methods with various kinds of informants was employed to ensure that personal perspectives were cross-checked against others, so as to get a more comprehensive and panoramic understanding of YPE in this study.

- Transferability

Transferability means the extent to which findings could be justifiable and related to different contexts. Anumba et al. (2008) questioned the transferability of the findings of a single study to different contexts and contended that such attempts dismiss the significance of context itself, which is very important in qualitative research. Jobard (2013) contended that it is the duty of a researcher to offer relevant data contexts in order to ensure that readers understand and decide whether the transfers can be useful in relative situations. This research has presented extensive information on the context of data and contextual elements or factors,

and it is for readers to decide the transferability of my findings to their particular research or policy concerns.

- Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness concerns the extent to which the research can be evidence. I have presented a review trail of the study procedure, e.g. methodology sample, interviews recording, interviews formalities and protocol and access to consultations, as discussed in section 5.9, to demonstrate the evidence of this research. By acknowledging that I transiently strayed into my research discussion, I have endeavoured to present different views in a clear and possible ways.

- Confirmability

According to Anumba et al. (2008), confirmability means that the research findings demonstrate the experience and thoughts of the research participants, and not merely reflections of the researchers own preferences. In this research I used the data triangulation of different types of informant and in-vivo coding of information collected to minimise the impact of my academic and personal predispositions. Anumba et al. (2008) argued that to increase confirmability researchers need to acknowledge and address potential bias and views supporting the research method, which is addressed above (5.11.4).

5.18 Research Summary

Table 5.5: Research summary

Selection	**Decision level**
Construction approach	Philosophical stance / ontology
Interpretivist approach	Epistemology / theoretical knowledge
Qualitative method	Methodological approach
Focus groups and Interviews (NDN youth political participation)	Method / approach
Personal, semi-structured and focused interviews, staff and documented reports	Information gathering approach
Youths, political representatives, government workers and NGOs	Types of analysis
Federal government agencies, NGOs, political parties and youth religious organisations	Establishment / organisations or agencies studied
The exploration of youth political participation in NDN	Research topic
Democratic theory, sociology of youth	Conceptual framework / theoretical approach
28/11/2014-nn/12/2018	Timetable
The use of thematic analysis with constructivist grounded theory and the software program Atlas.ti6	Date analysis

5.19 Network View of Data

Figure 5.5 shows a system view of the date analysis, produced in Atlas ti6 PC-(a computer software) (Giordano et al., 2011). Supported date analysis software investigation program, as detailed in the following chapters.

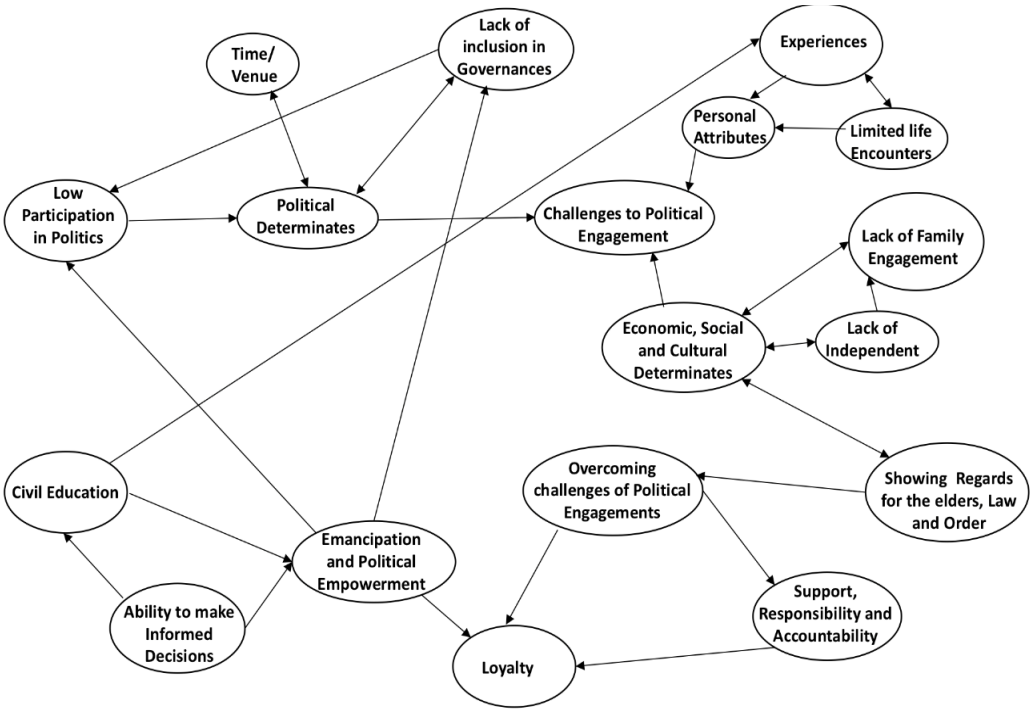

Figure 5.5: System view of data analysis (Atlas ti6)

All the lines represent links between the different themes, the sets and subsets. It presents an argument that YP may select what will benefit them; as such they should not be regarded as inexperienced. Furthermore, the subset political inclusion is linked with YP deficiency in government structures. All through the links, my argument is that if YP are motivated to vote, their interest in political participation will be motivated. The network links are elucidated in the following chapters.

5.20 Summary of Research Foundation

I have presented an outline of the strategy used as well as the main consideration regarding my study design and the utilised approach in my methodology. As I identify the significant of my perspective, as the main researcher in taking responsibility of this research, especially when it comes to what influenced my research method and design. I also established that the use of data triangulation design was important element that empowered YP engagement in this research with regards to asking questions, the research participants characteristics, the research methods utilised as well as the ethical framework used for this study. I have emphasised my perspective that the focus group and semi-structured method signifies an ideal means of exploring the involvements and views of YP in NDN.

I have presented the literature and policy by means of how it has informed my comprehension of research development and knowledge as well as the significance of engaging YP in my study or research design and process. Thus, in developing my research questions, I outline the research design to produce answers through data collecting processes that comprises organisational and semi-structured interviews questionnaires. I have emphasised the dissimilarities among qualitative and quantitative approaches and the way it influenced my interpretive view.

In the following chapter, I will present the findings, which arise from an in-depth analysis of rich data in the light of the research questions.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS

SECTION 1: YOUTH ENGAGEMENT IN THE YOUNG PEOPLE POLICY PROCESS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings gathered from the ten (10) focus group discussions and 20 interviews conducted with YP in NDN (section 5.5.1). It also considers answers to the main research question and sub questions. As participant A-D are used to represent data participants in this chapter (appendix G).

6.1.1 Main question

- What is the nature of young peoples political involvement in policy processes in Nigeria (Niger Delta)?

6.1.2 Sub questions:

- In what ways are young people engaged in policy processes in the Niger Delta?

  item What are the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process?

- In what ways are young peoples engagement in policy processes promoted in the Niger Delta Region?

The results chapter is divided into three sections and will address each research question in turn. To present the themes, extracts of the data gathered from participants are presented throughout this chapter. All participants consented to be identified in the reporting of data although aliases have been adopted to ensure anonymity. Emergent findings are presented in parallel with policy literature, particularly the UNDP (2011) direction on the approaches of YP involvement in democracy and general YP policies.

6.2 Ways Young People Are Engaged in Policy Processes

RQ1: In what ways are young people engaged in policy processes in the Niger Delta?

Several themes emerged from the process of coding the data that describe the ways in which

young people are engaged in processes of policy formation in the Niger Delta. These themes are divided into four main themes and eight sub-themes. These are shown in Table 6.1, which presents an overview of themes relating to Research question 1 (RQ1), concerning the ways in which young people are engaged in policy processes in the Niger Delta.

Table 6.1: YPE in policy processes in Niger Delta

RQ1 Main themes	Main theme Definition	Sub Themes	Sub theme definition
(A) Policy planning	Processes to engage YP in policy planning stages	1. Consultation	YP are invited to participate in a government consultation exercise
		2. Grassroots parties	YP take part in grassroot campaigns
(B) Policy Awareness and Access	Processes that allow YP to know about and view policy documents	1. Unregulated Access	YP access public policy documents
		2. Ministry supported access	Ministry strategies to promote policy awareness
(C) Unregulated engagement	Processes implementing Action Strategy through stakeholders forums (Regional and Federal)		
(D) Motivating YP engagement	Government processes that support YP to engage	1. Community Advocacy	Local strategies that feed into decision-making processes
		2. Media and Broadcasting	The use of media to encourage YP engagement
		3. Communication and Governance	National communication strategies of communication.

The following sections first provide an overview of the main themes, along with evidence from the data. These are followed by descriptions of each sub-themes along with examples from the data that help to define and exemplify the theme. Each will be discussed in turn.

6.3 RQ1 Main Theme A Policy Planning

Main Theme A is called policy planning and is defined as Processes to engage YP in policy planning stages. Engagement in policy planning was identify as one of the ways young people engaged in policy process. Nigerian national YPP is intensely affected by the prerequisites of the UN (Oluwaleye, 2017). According to participant A:

Nigeria is a member nation of the African Union, ECOWAS and the UN, and being a member nation commits us to young peoples approach and policy design, the framework of young peoples advancement. Nigeria had no choice but to ensure we complied with these foundations. Efforts to structure young peoples political participation and policy began in 1999, when the Legislature drafted a National Young Peoples Arrangement in light of the 1995 UN World Plan for Youth... (Participant A).

The Nigerian approach toward the planning of YP political participation process and policy reflected changes towards policy planning, with modifications positing that old records or policies are observed by policy makers, who make minor amendments to future planning and policies (Iwochukwu, 2011: 10). A participant commented that:

involving young peoples policy plan and design help to empower us and we appreciate but the MYC hardly implement it, which makes it difficult for us (Participant B).

Policies for YP were formulated and written in 1999, as explained previously in chapter 1.1, however they were not implemented because of widespread criticism, since the proposed approach did not effectively present YP political participation and YP agencies as the policy

was drafted. For instance, one of the participants remarked that:

Policy does not have a plan of action for implementation (participant A).

With the ascendancy of the PDP from 2013 to 1999 drafted policy was nullified and the planning for another YPP to draw in more youths and YP political participation and organisations was initiated by the ascendant political party. The UNDP (2011) stresses that the significance of YP participation should not be underestimated. To formulate a new YPP the Minister of Youth and Culture emphasised that YP ministries should be guided by the arrangements of the 1999 Constitution, which is another presentation of incrementalism in the planning of YPP. According to the Honourable Minister:

We took a gander at the reactions that were made against the 1999 arrangement or policy and we discussed with the youths to enhance the policy in order to acknowledge all stakeholders. (Participant A)

6.4 RQ1 Main Theme A (MTA) Subtheme 1: Consultation

Main Theme A Subtheme 1 is called consultation and is defined as young people are invited to participate in a government consultation exercise. Consultation and invitation were another ways to involve young people into policy processes. The approaches toward formulating or planning a new arrangement or policy began with discussion of various YP gatherings, involving out-of-school youths, students and other YP affiliations or organisations, alongside the ministries, commissions and departments of the government establishment. This consultation and discussion are concerned the enrolment of groups with the MYC before they can be operationalised in communities. The MYC is mandated under the Nigerian Young Peoples Act (1999) to enrol all YP associations in Nigeria. According to the Assistant Regional

Coordinator, enrolling the repository of YP associations with the MYC makes it possible to include them in the planning and formulation of YPP. He remarked that the MYC used the enrolled associations to assemble rallies at which YP are empowered to conceptualize their understanding of what to include in YPP. Some YP participants in group discussions noted their engagement in YP mobilization and rallies.

> I was given the chance to view the drafted policy and to see if there was anything I could contribute and what I think the regional young people should consider in the policy document. I presented it at the conference... (Participant C)

However, from the views of the YP who participated in the consultative or discussion process, the process seemed to be dominated by political parties and their YP members. The research discovered that the necessity of YP gatherings and associations to enrol with the MYC barred some groups and associations from engaging in formulating YPP, as remarked by a core participant:

> *The Ministry did not consult us because we have not enrolled with it. Now our organisation has enrolled, and they call us any time they are doing consultation gatherings... (Participant B)*

Similar thoughts were presented by participant C (NDN Youth Development Commission, Edo Chapter) concerning their establishment not being called upon to engage in the consultation on the basis that it was not enrolled with the MYC. Thus, it appears there was general accord among interviewees in this research (excluding those from the MYC itself) that the MYC was unable to undertake a comprehensive consultative exercise with the youth. In the group interviews the interviewees suggested that the Ministry ought to have publicized by broadcast the consultation exercises on the media and daily papers, and ought to have gone to secondary schools to request the perspectives of the youth, rather than sending invitations to bureaucratically incorporated establishments and organisations to remark on a policy draft a priori.

Moreover, the invitation of YP establishments to contribute toward the formulation of policy was mainly directed toward organisational executives (i.e. directors), who are themselves mature adults. As remarked by one youth:

The Ministry of Youth and Culture basically sends invitations to youth organisations to come to rallies, however, those in attendance at the rallies are mostly adults. The Ministry may have realised that the organisations are coordinated by adults and not youths, and if you send them invitations it is the adults that represent them. (Participant C)

6.4.1 RQ1 Main Theme A (MTA) Subtheme 2: Grassroots parties

Main Theme A Subtheme 2 is called grassroot political parties and is defined as young people take in grassroot campaigns. In this research I discovered that grassroot political parties was another means of engaging young people in political and policy process. The approach used in the formulation of YPP at grassroot was campaigns and discussions, which adversely affected the confidence of some youths and their organisations.

In our local party we were told that if we are active in campaigns, will be our party representatives for young people at congress were policy are formulated, so I lead the campaign, and it is helping me to understand policy processes. (Participant D)

As explained in the first chapter 1.2, politics is a necessary aspect of policy making in democratic government starting from the grassroots level (Timmerman, 2009; Nsirim-Worlu, 2016; Vite, 2018), in which policies are not formulated in controlled circumstances by a technocratic elite. Thus, the matrix of politics in YPP formulation in NDN is not problematic in itself, rather the main problem arises from the uncoordinated and separatist nature of implementing YPP and initiatives to increase YP participation in the grassroots was due to political expediency. I discovered that the government approach has been declining for years

due to politicisation of grassroot political parties, with each political party according YPP different status.

For instance, the PDPs YPP in 1999 was superseded by the APC attempts to co-opt all local political parties in the NDN region (including YP leaders) from 2015. The latter was a departure from previous APC YPP in 2013; when the PDP regional state youth leaders were not included in the political party, APC youth leaders were invited to government consultation. As a result of their non-inclusion, the YP of opposition parties refused to attend the subsequent policy launch, contending that the formulated policy was not all inclusive because the PDP youth leaders were not invited. Over-politicisation adversely affected the formulation of policy at the grassroot, as remarked by core participants in this research:

I lost my enthusiasm for the policy and quit going to any grassroot political gatherings. The PDP and APP were so concerned about getting and scoring more points for their political party at the grassroot and then they will say to us, the young people: vote for our party because of young peoples policy

Why does it take a long time to draft a policy, as the current policy plan has not been accepted and rejected by the party in opposition? Who can tell what will happen if the upcoming election is won by them? (Participant D)

According to the UNDP (2011: 6), YPP that does not reflect the perceptions, needs and concerns of all youths in its locality may be incomprehensible based on lack of motivation.

6.5 RQ1 Main Theme B Policy Awareness and Access

Main Theme B is called policy awareness and access and is defined as Processes that allow YP to know about and view policy documents. In the focus interviews this study found

that some YP were unaware of the APYP policy document concerning YPP, because the policy document itself is difficult to access. From the 20 YP in the group discussions, eight communicated that they were aware of the policy documents existence. I asked them to state what they knew of the policy document they replied they ware at the rally when it was launched by the Minister of Youth and Culture. The response suggested that they merely attended the launch, but they could not explain any of the policy content in detail, as shown in the following extract.

BNV: Are any of you aware of the young people's policy document?

KE, ADD & HO: Yes, we are.

BNV: Okay, you are all aware of it, do you want to tell me what you know about it?

HO: I attended the launching by the Minister, and it contains the government program for the youth.

KE: I know that the whole policy of 1999 young peoples policy was reviewed by the MYC, to support the young people in NDN.

ADD: I did not attend the launch; however, I am aware that the plan for all young people to contribute to government programs.

There where divergent levels of policy awareness among participants. Although none of the eight members of the Advocacy for Youth Assembly had clear knowledge of the policys existence, of the 12 members of the NGO eight (i.e. two-thirds) seemed to know of its existence. The contrast in awareness regarding YPP may be as a result of the various focus and place of operation of both groups. The NGO works in the two regional capitals in NDN (Edo and Rivers), while the Advocacy for Youth Assembly works at the local government areas in the regions, which is reflected in their keen concern about community development for youth.

Some members of the NGO seemed to have access to the policy makers and the policy as well as the regional and national politicians, which was reflected in them being invited to the launching of the policy (and interaction with the Minister of Youth and Culture), while the Advocacy for Youth Assembly was effectively barred from access to policy and policy-makers in the region. As a result, it can be deduced that awareness of YPP was facilitated by accessibility to politicians and policy makers.

6.5.1 RQ1 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 1: Unregulated Access

Main Theme B Subtheme 1 is called unregulated access and is defined as YP access public to policy documents. Unregulated access to young peoples policy documents was another means that the research findings identify. The opportunities to access policy were to be unregulated and less problematic if the ministries are to allow people to have access.

I was told I can google the policy document on line, but I dont have money to buy airtime in order to have data so that I can download the document, so I think if the ministries really want us have access to it as they say, they should send copies to schools, libraries and NGOs (Participant C)

According to the MYC Regional Director for Youth Co-Ordinator, there are regulated copies that are convenient to share between YP. Some members of the NGO mentioned that they had been directed to download the policy from the Ministry website. However, the regulated accessibility of the policy hinders YP awareness of it.

6.5.2 RQ1 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 2: Ministries Supported Access

Main Theme B Subtheme 2 is called ministries supported access and is defined as ministry strategies to promote policy awareness. The support from Ministries was discovered as one of the ways to encourage Young People in policy processes. Thus, the concern relating to knowledge and access to YPP and political participation in NDN was the approaches utilized in supporting YPP. With the aim to engaged and promote policy and political participation to all youths, the MYC introduced a campaign called the Niger Youth Initiative Project to increase youth awareness concerning social issues affecting them like conflict, drug addiction and HIV/AIDS. This campaign was carried out throughout the regions to engaged and promote the views of YPP. However, YP and some core participants related their concerns regarding the approaches utilized in the dissemination exertion; these campaigns were described as a political campaign stage.

Change Your View to Better Niger Delta Nigeria was the slogan of the APC in the 2015 election that they won. The Niger Delta Region and the nation is getting ready for the 2019 presidential election and the APC are campaigning that the nation is out of recession, which is an achievement to improve the Nigerian agenda, and since they are campaigning to win young peoples votes, the government are using the MYC. They named it Young peoples Initiative Program but in practice they are campaigning for electoral votes for 2019...

(Participant C)

As remarked by some core participants the YP initiative tour is often spearheaded by political representatives in the MYC and other political nominees at the regional level, for example the Local Government Board. Therefore, any YP who do not welcome the ideas and policies of the APC government, or those individuals who did not vote for them, seem to avoid the tours, which appear to be political rallies for campaigning. This issue overwhelmed most of

the focus group discussions conducted, and YP expressed that even if they were informed about the YP initiative tours they did not participate because they were dubious about whether it would be beneficial for them, as they had no vote.

The Government have not been able to promote effective awareness regarding this policy among the youth. They have to bring more young people on board, by going to each town to sensitise the young people about the policy. Moving with politicians for a tour will not promote the required awareness. Because I dont vote, I cannot waste my time to listen to fake promises from politicians. They ought to make the policy accessible for us to be aware that; for instance, in this area this is the government commitment for the youth... (Participant D)

A further issue in regard to promoting political participation and YPP appears to be the language in which the policy is written. The official language of Nigeria is English, but various dialects are spoken throughout NDN. The policy is only available in English, which limits its accessibility, and some YP are of the opinion that it is a hindrance to the awareness and accessibility of the policy.

The policy is only in English language but all of us are product of heterogeneous communities with different languages. Why is the policy only written for English readers? It will be better to present the policy in different languages and include a format for the deaf and blind... (Participant D)

6.5.3 RQ1 Main Theme C Unregulated Engagement

Main Theme C is called unregulated engagement and is defined as processes implementing action strategy through stakeholders forums (Regional and Federal). To partake in the implementation process, the Young Peoples Act, section 7, provides for the establishment of a YP Stakeholders Forum involving different YP organisations and groups. In the article, it is

stated:

The Young Peoples Council may support the facilitation and establishment of the Young Peoples Stakeholders Forum that will assume an active role and identify all young peoples associations and groups within the regional and national level for the implementation of the Young Peoples Policy.

Furthermore, some YP associations and groups have adopted an active role in this project and have instituted the MYC Stakeholders Medium (MYCSM) tier to associate with policy makers at the regional level. As remarked by Participant A, the Stakeholders Medium was planned to:

Perform like a preliminary preparation that should have been replicated in the local and regional level to warrant a thorough participation of young people from the federal to the grassroots levels.

The MYCSM was not replicated throughout the NDN, because the one functioning body (at the federal level) was dissolved without clear explanation. The Assistant Regional Co-Ordinator attributed the dissolution to the fact that the appellative stakeholders had completed their task, but some core participants had a more cynical view, believing that the Stakeholders Medium was dissolved because of power struggles among officers of the MYC and different YP organisations and groups. A core participant commented that the MYC was not comfortable with the MYCSM because it was headed by delegates of YP organisations, and not by the Ministry itself. They considered that ministerial control would compromise the independence of the Medium, and there was a general aversion to Stakeholder members being co-opted by the MYC, with invitations to partake in conferences, solicit funds and incentives being used by the Ministry to assert control over the Forum. This prompted inner disagreements among leaders within the Medium, which led to the dissolution of the institution.

A different group of YP organisations was formed in NDN, the Youth Alliance for Development Organisation, in order to present a unified voice to contribute towards YPP implementation. However, I comprehended that this association was never of equal import to the MYCSM. The MYC has an established implementation panel group to oversee and ensure effective YPP implementation, which includes delegates from the State Ministry for Youth and Development, the Ministry of Internal Affairs, the State Ministry of Education, the MYC itself, and the Niger Delta Development Commission. It was very surprising to observe that this group has no youth delegate or indeed a delegate from any YP group organisations in the region, which is contrary to the structure of YPP that aims to establish YPE in all decision-making levels and processes (National Youth Policy, 2011). As a result of the dissolution of the MYCSM and the non-inclusion of YP representation in the new panel group of implementations, YP do not participate actively in or with the Committee of Policy Implementation.

The limited YPE in the process of policy implementation was aggravated by the confidentiality toward action strategy of the implementation policy. I discovered that there is confusion about the presence and non-presence of the action strategy. Although the Young Peoples Policy Act (2009) specifically states in section 22.4.2 that the Young Peoples Chambers are teams with significant stakeholders established the action strategy for the policy implementation, the Regional and Urban Co-Ordinators of the MYC commented that the existence of action strategy was not made known to them. According to UNDP (2011: 36), YP policies need to be incorporated into a nations development plan; in the absence of such incorporation, policy formulation is likely to be an ineffective and disorganised exercise: policies for YP should be identified with and connect with the sectoral policies and identify with the goals for regional development.

An action strategy designs and explains the process of YPP formulation and the process of implementation with integration into regional development plans. The UNDP (2012: 11) states that an action strategy is a:

Strategic and all-encompassing document uniting all the active stakeholders and ought to give clearly explanation the particular actions to adopt, when it will be adopted and whom to keeping in mind as the end goal to meet the needs of the policy.

YP in the focus discussion remarked on the non-accessibility of strategy action:

It is unfortunate that the Ministry of Youth and Culture could not clarify audience of common issues, however for reasons unknown it has turned into a riddle, with or without the existence of implementation strategy action for young peoples policy... (Participant D) They [the MYC] told us there is an action strategy toward policy implementation, but none of us has been shown a copy. It ought to be made accessible for us to be aware, for instance that this section presents how the government will promote this for the youth... (Participant D)

The process of YPP was over-politicised to the extent that it affected the enthusiasm of some core participants to discuss it, and some of them were hesitant at the MYC to discuss the strategy action, as in the following example:

We have used the indicative budget to work on the action strategy. It is ready for amendment. We are waiting, as soon as all amendments are done it will be released. (Participant A)

This reaction suggested that the action strategy was not developed according to expectations, but when asked about the remarks in the action strategy for YPP being designed and completely developed, the participant declined to remark. Some core participants from the MYC were hesitant to respond to my questions regarding the action strategy, commenting that they cannot make any categorical statement on issues that are political.

YP policies should be interpreted in local strategies adapted to particular YP contextual needs (e.g. cultural sensitivity), in view of which the UNDP (2012) stresses that to adequately interpret YP policies it is necessary to involve the rural and regional agencies in programmes

for development of the action strategy. It appears this is not what is going on in the action strategy development in NDN. Although the Assistant Regional Coordinator was conscious of the futility of top-down approaches directed from the metropolis, commenting that it is not good to stay in Abuja (the Federal Capital of Nigeria) and consider some activities which may be done in localities, this seems to be what is go on, which was evident in the statements of two regional coordinators who presented that the action strategy is exclusively developed in Abuja, and that the implementation is then delegated to the government ministries who direct to the provinces. Participants lamented this situation and were unanimous in the theoretical observation that every region should develop their own action strategy to significantly engage YP at the local level.

Although participants were hesitant to respond to questions regarding the action strategy, the study found that YP aged 16-19 years were not included in action strategy development even if they were included during the policy formulation discussions. I cannot comment on action strategy regarding the YPP implementation due to the confidentiality surrounding the policy implementation, but it is evident that participants aged 16-19 years were not engaged with the policy development implementation plan. In response to questions that relate to how the MYC included this age cohort in the action strategy for development, the Assistant Regional Co-Ordinator said:

> *This age is the period of writing examinations for either Junior or Senior School Certificates. It seems not right to stress them with this issue. They ought to be allowed to focus on their examinations. (Participant A)*

Despite this excuse, he stressed that some university students and political parties youth wings participated in the strategy action development.

6.6 RQ1 Main Theme D Motivating Young Peoples Engagement

Main Theme D is called motivating young peoples engagement and is defined as government processes that support YP to engage. I found that there is confidentiality concerning the action strategy of the YPP, and the MYC was obviously sincere in implementing some of the policy features. This section presents initiatives by the Ministry to support YPE in policy making in NDN. The MYC has diverse techniques at different stages in NDN, including community advocacy, media communication in the community, and communication technology and governance at the federal level.

6.6.1 RQ1 Main Theme D (MTD) Subtheme 1: Community Advocacy

Main Theme D Subtheme 1 is called community advocacy and is defined as the local strategies that feed into decision-making processes. The MYC established Advocacy for Youth rallies in the community and local areas in NDN for YP to participate in grassroots local political activities, which is an inherent venue to affect the decision-making process, albeit indirectly. Registration for membership is open to all interested youths aged 16-25 years, in junior and senior secondary schools. In the rallies, the advocates deliberated on issues related to YP and sent in their resolutions to the related government officers for consideration and (theoretically) action. Nevertheless, there appeared to be a general awareness among the CSOs and YP themselves that the right to implement their resolutions was to not accorded them. They stressed that sometimes the government agencies and institutions dismissed their resolutions without explanation or clarification for not implementing them, as presented in the following exacts.

NF: Reaching out to lot of decision makers to be keen on issues relating to young people and filing petitions of implementations to decision makers may be disappointing sometimes.
BYV: I agree with her comment, and again we were contributory in filing petitions to decision makers that aided them to a stop to some unlawful activities in the region, for example child molestation and drug abuse. However, when we sent resolutions on some issues of sanitation the House of Assemblies refused to reply to us.
SRC: Sometimes, when we present concerns issues to the House of Assemblies Speaker and other members, they act. I recollect when we identified the approaches utilized for child molestation the Ministry acknowledged our petition and took quick action, but they refused to acknowledge our petition to convert the place for a young peoples amusement park.
TJ: Truly, we were very positive about the young peoples amusement park, however, we are not empowered. I know that if the decision was in the hands of the young people, the young peoples park may have been constructed.
KC: Of course, some of our resolutions were refused but it is reasonable to give explanation and clarifications on why they reject it.

Participants reported that they received a transport allowance for their participation in YP rallies. There was an uncertain perception regarding the sustainability of this advocacy scheme, since the Ministry was struggling to finance it. According to a core participant in this research:

If the sponsors do not give out finance, the Young Peoples Advocacy Rallies are probably going to be a failure, because the Ministry does not have the funds to sustain the scheme... (Participant A)

This comment alludes to the necessity for the House of Assemblies to incorporate the YP advocacy rallies and YP in general in their planning for sustained YPE, however the House has been hesitant to support the rally scheme. Another participant commented:

In addition to the success by the advocacy rallies in lessening child molestations, we convened with the House of Assemblies to finance the scheme, but they refused to finance it.

Another regional co-ordinator appeared to have succeeded in securing House of Assemblies funding, and his local Constituency House supported the advocacy for about a year, whereupon the House of Assemblies reviewed the scheme and concluded that the YP advocacy rallies had no vital significance to the House, although they noted their success in reducing child molestation.

6.6.2 RQ1 Main Theme D (MTD) Subtheme 2: Media and Broadcasting

Main Them D Subtheme 2 is called media and broadcasting and is defined as the use of media to encourage YP engagement. At the local level the MYC seeks to motivate YPE using communication media, specifically radio and TV shows. The MYC in conjunction with the Nigeria Telecommunication Authority sponsors the NGO throughout NDN. Personnel are aged 16 to 30, including junior and senior secondary school and university students. To encourage more participation in the programme it is presented in two versions every week in English and native dialects. NGO members convene often to review current issues facing YP and select issues for presentation on radio and TV shows. On these programmes politicians and policy makers are always given an invite to express their views with the youth. Some YP also make contributions by phone calls and text messages during the show, but some YP in this scheme appeared unhappy regarding the way in which they are treated by political institutions and their role in the decision-making process, as revealed by the extracts below.

DA: I noticed that our politicians do not honour our invitations to the shows we organised, instead they keep scrambling to show up on political shows. At the public debate and discussion on the secondary school calendar, we sent an invite to the Education Minister to attend our programme, but he turned it down with no explanation or apologies. I dont think our government officials or politicians consider what we say here as important.

JFG: It appears what we talk about here does not make a difference to our politicians. Every one of us in the studio and the young peoples in different NGO programmes contended against changing the secondary school calendar. They amended it to three years, and within one year they have taken it back to four years, this in inconveniencing and confusing to all students.

VG: At first we argued against amending it to three years however they amended it, we said it was fine, the new system should continue and let us see how it works so that we can contrast the two calendar systems. But another government administration came and abolished the amendment and returned back to the old calendar programmes. The young peoples views need to be listened to because any amendment directly affects them. We only debate and they take any action they want to take because we dont have the power to compel them to listen and hear our views on issues.

6.6.3 RQ1 Main Theme D (MTD) Subtheme 3: Communication and Governance

Main Theme D Subtheme 3 is called community and governance and is defined as national communication strategies of communication. At the regional level the MYC promoted YPE and participation in administrative governance by forming the Youth Parliament to give YP a chance to make an impact on regional policy and decisions, to instil in them the principles and values of democracy. As will be discussed in the next chapter, YP non-engagement in administrative governance is identified as a challenge to engagement in processes of public

policy. Forming the regional Youth Parliament appears to be a commendable approach in forming new forums to include YP in governance and politics. However, some participants were concerned regarding membership of the Youth Parliament.

The Regional Young Peoples Parliament is composed of delegates of the different young peoples parliaments that have been set up in the higher institutions like polytechnics and universities. Shouldnt something be said about those of us in secondary schools? (Participant D)

The Youth Parliament is primarily intended to include delegates from higher education institutions, thus those aged 16-18 years (in secondary school) are not directly involved, giving them the impression that they are considered unimportant in the regional development discourse, particularly as they cannot vote. The obvious rationale for this is that if the Parliament is a serious institution, its role would be undermined if it was seen as a debating institution including high school scholars too young to vote, and not a serious political institution as such. Conversely, students in higher institutions are capable to vote, which is conducive to them being accorded greater regard in YP political outreach, as they are inherently a constituency to attend to or please, and potential cadres of future political party organisation. Indeed, some core participants were concerned that YP enrolment in the Parliament was influenced by political parties and their YP wings:

The leadership elections in the high institutions were however intended to be non-partisan, but they turned out to be influenced by some political affiliates of the aspirants. All the political parties take the student elections as a road to prepare for future pioneers to political party leadership; as such, the political parties secretly support and sponsor their party members to aspire for the student elections and hijack all the key positions... (Participant B)

Individuals are always nominated to represent the Young Peoples Parliament; there is no election and people do not vote for the young peoples delegates who sit in the parliament.

My concern is that the Young Peoples Parliament will turn into a young peoples wing of political party appendage... (Participant B)

Using the internet, the MYC is promoting engagement in the dialogue of parliamentary sections. The MYC has formed an electronic platform on its site to gather YP perspectives on issues of concern debated in the Regional Parliament. These YP perspectives are then sent for consideration by particular committees in the Parliamentary Advisory Group.

Since this stage is internet-centred, there are no age constraints regarding who can contribute. As such, the YP and children and even the elderly or adults could utilize this stage. Though this electronic stage is seemingly accessible to individuals that have access to the internet and who live in urban areas of NDN, YP in the rural community find it difficult to engage in the discussion stage, exacerbated by poor internet connectivity and economic barriers.

6.7 Summary

The above sections present data suggesting that the ways in which young people are engaged in policy processes in the Niger Delta can be described in terms of four main themes (A) policy planning (B) Policy Awareness and Access (C) Unregulated Engagement, and (D) Motivating Young Peoples Engagement.

These in turn are understood in more detail through the following sub-themes:

MTA1 Consultation, MTA2 Grassroot parties, MTB1 Unregulated Access, MTB2 Ministry Supported Access, MTC Unregulated Engagement, MTD1 Community Advocacy, MTD2 Media and Broadcasting, and MTD3 Communication and Governance.

While the main themes describe the qualitatively different approaches adopted to enabling young peoples engagement, the sub-themes describe the results of strategies that describe the

ways in which young people are actually involved in practice. As such the main themes can be considered macro-level themes while the sub-themes are the micro level practices describing how macro approaches actually function.

In the next section we will move on to address research question 2: What are the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process?

SECTION 2: CHALLENGES TO YOUNG PEOPLES ENGAGEMENT IN POLICY FORMULATION

6.8 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the ways YP engaged in policy processes and discovered that there were low level of YPE in YPP formulation and implementation, identifying its causes. This chapter explains the challenges to YPE in policy formulation and suggested answers to two of the research questions: As participant A-D are used to represent data participants in this chapter (appendix G).

- What are the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process?
- In what ways are young peoples engagement in policy processes promoted in the Niger Delta Region?

I will start with identifying the challenges to YPE and present some suggested ways of how to overcome them then and discuss motivation of YPE.

The challenges to YPE fall under three themes: personal attributes, socio-cultural factors

and political elements.

6.9 RQ2: Challenges to Young Peoples Engagement in Policy Implementation

Research question 2: what are the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process?

This section considers the themes emerging from the data coding that explain the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process in the Niger Delta. These themes are separated into three main themes and eight sub-themes. These are shown in Table 6.2, which shows Table 2 an outline of themes relating to Research question 2 (RQ2), concerning challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process.

Table 6.2: Challenges to YPE in policy implementation

RQ2 Main themes	Main theme Definition	Sub Themes	Sub theme definition
(A) Personal Attributes	Challenges that arise from characteristics of YP	1. Maturity	YP are seen as immature and emotional
		2. Inexperience	YP are seen as lacking in practical, logical, work-based skills and knowledge
		3. Logistical barriers	Issues around practical barriers (time, transport, finance)
(B) Socio-Cultural Factors	Challenges that arise from the characteristics of Nigerian culture and society.	1. Tradition of community authority	YP are not permitted to challenge the regulated content of discussions
		2. Lack of adult status	YP are not permitted to make informed decisions (because they are not full adults)
		3. Attitudes within families	Traditions of reverence for Elders within the family model relationships outside the family
(C) Political Elements	Challenges that arise from political party interventions in Policy Process	1. Political turbulence	Political brutality and violence discourage YP from engaging actively in political activities
		2. YP Perceived lack of impact	YP feel that they dont have any impact on the System of Government

Table 6.2 is an outline of themes relating to Research question 2 (RQ2) the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process.

This section outlines the main themes, and some results gathered from the data in relation to RQ2. These are followed by explanations of each sub-themes along with examples from the data that help to describe and show the theme. Each will be discussed in turn.

6.10 RQ2 Main Theme A Personal Attributes

Main Theme A is called personal attributes and is defined as challenges that arise from characteristics of YP young. These are inherent elements in YP which are likely to reduce their ability to contribute to the developmental process of the region (Ezeibe and Ikeanyibe, 2017). In the study, personal attributes were recognized as inexperience and limited life encounters. Within this main theme were three sub-themes. These will be discussed in turn.

6.10.1 RQ2 Main Theme A (MTA) Subtheme 1: Maturity

Main Theme A Subtheme 1 is called maturity and is defined as young people are seen as immature and emotional. The findings from this study reveal the existence of a widespread perception that youths were seen as inexperienced, lacking the necessary maturity to engage in the decision-making process due to being emotionally unfit because of their lack of experience, as well as the issue of their perceived lack of articulation in presenting logical argument in policy dialogues. One core participant remarked that:

They [the elders] have the idea that 16-18 year-old young peoples lack experience and are immature, so they cannot make an informed decision, not to talk of contributing to governmental issues and policy... (Participant B)

This comment alludes to the socio-cultural fundamentals explained in the next section. Some YP also expressed their views about why they themselves felt that they are excluded and viewed as unable to become decision-makers and to inform policy toward YP participation:

They view us, the youth, as people with small brains; yes, we may not reason like the elders, but they should permit us to air out our views on issues. (Participant D)

I likewise believe that they regard us as little children, as they assume that our reasoning is nave; it is a shame we cant even consider things that are of profit to others... (Participant D)

Their belief is that youths dont discus meaningful things and cannot be seen as serious people. They are afraid that the youths will be haughty if they are allowed to sit in the midst of the elders. The young people may surmise that he is now an elder and might do some unexpected things. There is an adage that says grown-up children give helping hands to the elders; however, I doubt if we are considered as grown-ups... (Participant D)

There was clearly unanimity among YP that they were perceived to lack experience and abilities to engage in informed decision-making, and those aged 16-18 were particularly affected in terms of the prevailing view that they were not mature enough to have the capacity to contribute (Burd, 2010).

6.10.2 RQ2 Main Theme A (MTA) Subtheme 2: Inexperience

Main Theme A Subtheme 2 is called inexperience and is defined as young people YP are seen as lacking in practical, logical, work-based skills and knowledge. Some participants in this research commented that youths are excluded from the policy-making process since they do not have the experience and the required knowledge for logical based ideas for the policy-making process itself. Thus, YP do not have the expected work knowledge and practical experiences required for policy dialogues, as remarked by a core participant:

The 16-18 years old young people dont have much beneficial experience, despite the fact that their theoretical learning and knowledge base could be substantial and effective. They read

about some specific things, however their low experience in life will reduce the level of contribution they can make towards decision-making process, since they dont have an informed knowledge based and experience to direct their choices of decision... (Participant C)

Clearly this creates a no-win situation whereby YP cannot achieve political experience because they are inexperienced; another core participant addressed this impasse by suggesting that age-appropriate participation could be the beginning of induction into political activity, implicitly concerning YP issues:

There is a need to promote young peoples engagement toward the decision-making process, but we will consider areas in which they have experience so that they can make positive contribution to decision-making processes. They cannot contribute to aviation policy [for instance], because they have little or no experiences in the aviation industry, so including them would be out of place. (Participant C)

6.10.3 RQ2 Main Theme A (MTA) Subtheme 3: Logistics

Main Them A Subtheme 3 is called logistics and is defined as Issues around practical barriers (time, transport, finance). engagements where affected by logistical barriers, allocated time and venues. Logistical barriers to YPE in the formulation of YPP include location and time issues. I found that YP had less chance to engage in policy making due to the allocated time and venue for the consultation not being amenable to their attendance. Delegates have to ensure that the territory or venue and time of the rallies are suitable for the targeted YP population in order to encourage their optimal engagement. Some YP recounted that at the time the consultation was going on (i.e. YP assemblies and rallies) many people could not attend since it was during academic term time:

Some of us are in boarding schools and is not possible to leave our school without

permission; as such we were unable to engage in the young peoples rallies... (Participant D)

Similarly, the YP remarked that since the consultation policy exercise was happening in the capital zones/ locale social affairs, this was a logistical barrier to people from remote areas and from lower socioeconomic backgrounds engaging in the policy process. In the group discussion, one participant recalled that:

We were expected to hire a taxi to go and present our ideals. Most of my friends that do not have money did not have the chance to present their views... (Participant D)

Thus, the common consensus among participants was that the MYC ought to hold consultations, rallies or conferences when students are on holiday, or indeed it should reach out in their schools in order to get their contributions for YPP formulation.

6.11 RQ2 Main Theme B Socio-Cultural Factors

Main Theme B is called socio-cultural factors and is defined as the challenges that arise from the characteristics of Nigerian culture and society. Socio-cultural factors as manifest in popular attitudes were the core of all barriers to YPE, but as a distinct category of barriers in themselves they relate to social structures iterated by cultural and social belief systems that determine YP views of themselves and their elders, and the elders views of the former, converging to reduce the ability of the YP to contribute towards decision-making and the policy-making process. These socio-cultural elements are formulated as deference to elders; lack of independence; and lack of engagement in family decision making (Ikporukpo, 1986). Within this main theme were three sub-themes. These will be discussed in turn.

6.11.1 RQ2 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 1: Tradition of Community Authority

Main Theme B Subtheme 1 is called Tradition of community authority and is defined as young people are not permitted to challenge the regulated content of discussions. Some YP commented that they had low level of engagement in the YPP formulation processes because they did not have the ability to challenge the regulated scope of the discussion or consultation processes, since they would not like to be viewed as disrespectful people. Some YP who had engaged in politics had indeed been stigmatized in this way:

They labelled some of us as disrespectful and not having regards for the culture only because we questioned some of the issues discussed in the Young Peoples Assembly. I feel that they side-lined and labelled us as controversial any time we put up our hands to comment or contribute. In my view, this causes the low level of young peoples engagement and few members turn up towards the last days of the Assembly, since their contribution was not useful, so there is no need to be in attendance because they cannot air out their views...

(Participant D)

While there are different elements that may contribute to low level of YPE in the concluding day of the Youth Rallies, it is significant to state that the YP feel that expectations of deference and appropriate behaviour toward elders limits their ability to question officials. As Vite (2018) argued, elders are generally afraid that the YP may be haughty if allowed to sit among the elders, and the YP may disregard the elders if they see themselves as one of the elders. This is discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

6.11.2 RQ2 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 2: Lack of Adult Status

Main Theme B Subtheme 2 is called lack of adult status and is defined as YP are not permitted to make informed decisions (because they are not full adults). The stage at which YP are conventionally regarded as being adult (and thus full citizens) is when they are considered independent, by taking increased responsibility for their own actions. In the culture of the NDN, someone who does not have the ability to make an informed decision has not attained full adulthood. Children and adolescents are reliant on elders (parents or guardians) for all important life decisions such as the type of school they attend, subjects they specialise in and marriage partners, in addition to economic dependence on stipends (Wray-Lake and Hart, 2012). Since they cannot make informed decisions for themselves, it follows (in the cultural milieu of NDN Niger) that they cannot make positive contributions to public decisions or to the region and government (Uwem, 2015). As stated in the previous chapter, YP appear to be inexperienced in life and work experience to convey to discourses on regional and national matters. Some core participants contended that youths did not have the needed experience, basically because they do not give them the independence to make decisions on their own, as in the following example:

> *I dont imagine that many guardians or parents will permit their 16-19 year-old daughters and sons to go and search for work, regardless of the possibility that young people need to work... (Participant A)*

Thus, as youths are socially and culturally considered to lack independence and the capability to make informed decisions of their own, they are disempowered from evidence-based contributions to the policy-making process (Howlett and Mukherjee, 2014).

6.11.3 RQ2 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 3: Attitudes Within Families

Main Theme B Subtheme 3 is called Attitudes within families and is defined as Traditions of reverence for Elders within the family model relationships outside the family. According to Coyne and Gallagher (2011), the best place to practice engagement in the decision-making process is in the family circle. As stated earlier, the lack of independence and the reverence for elders, hinders YPE in policy making process, which is repeated within the family decision-making process. YP are often not consulted about important decisions affecting their families and communities, in accordance with the traditional maxim that children should be seen and not heard (UNHCR, 2005). These prehistoric behaviours internalised from the home environment are extrapolated to the political sphere, and manifest in the exclusion of YP from serious decision-making procedures (Burd, 2010). Therefore, policy makers outline policy procedures for YP according to a model of paternal benevolence, without acknowledging the need to consult the YP themselves. Some core participants commented on such phenomena:

In my family, our father never consults us as his sons before making any decisions; for us he just does it, as such, this home behaviour, he also demonstrated it at his place of work or the office by making decisions for the young peoples about what they want. They [elders] seem not to care or dont ask if the young peoples will want it or not. We are compelled to accept it... (Participant C)

6.12 RQ2 Main Theme C- Political Elements

Main Theme C is called political elements and is defined as challenges that arise from political party interventions in policy process. Another challenge to YPE in policy making is the classification of political elements inherent within political parties that restrain YPE in the

policy process. The elements are identified as upheavals and violence in the political system and the perception that engagement has a low impact on the system of governance, mainly due to the perception that influence is monopolised by political leaders.

6.12.1 RQ2 Main Theme C (MTC) Subtheme 1: Political Turbulence

Main Theme C Subtheme 1 is called Political turbulence and is defined as political brutality and violence discourage YP from engaging actively in political activities. The NDN region has endured various political upheavals starting since Nigeria became a democracy in 1999 (Uwem, 2015). The four subsequent election campaigns featured outbreaks of violence, in which some YP were sporadically killed (Akpan, 2017). Similarly, Arowosegbe (2009) also noted that there have been some reported cases of brutality and violence that have led to the death of some people during the political campaign period, orchestrated by different political rivals. Unsurprisingly the level of brutality and violence has made some parents feel discouraged about allowing their family members to engage in political activities:

Frequent political brutality and violence has brought about a circumstance whereby parents and guardians do not allow their children to engage in political campaigns so that they will not be victims... (Participant A)

Even to select youths for the Young Peoples Advocacy Rallies, most parents do not want their children to engage, for the reason that they dont want their family member to be part of violent politics. I individually went to meet a few of their parents to discuss with them and reassure them that the Young Peoples Advocacy Rallies aim is not about engaging them in political issues or politics... (Participant B)

Furthermore, when YP demonstrate enthusiasm for political issues the system does not encourage or motivate this. One 17 year-old remarked that she enjoys listening and watching

the televised political discussion show Matters Arising, but her father generally opposes this and changes the channel. The father consistently berates her and denigrates her interest in politics, asking:

Why are you always listening to political issues that will not help you, or you keep having an interest in political issues when you cannot even vote? What a shame! (Participant D)

6.12.2 RQ2 Main Theme C (MTC) Subtheme 2: YP Perceived lack of impact

Main Theme C Subtheme 2 is called YP Perceived lack of impact and is defined as YP feel that they dont have any impact on the System of Government. I found that YP perceive that they generally do not exert any impact or impression on the system of government, mainly because they are excluded from any meaningful contribution to decision making:

The youths seem not to be informed about key rising issues and it seems they dont have the right approach to relate with duty bearers [policy leaders] so as to make a positive impact on core decisions... (Participant B)

Some youths expressed that their apparent lack of comprehension of the system of governance is because of democratic disfranchisement:

As presented in the national policies, our government appears to be taking a gander at satisfying voters for the surety of the renewal of mandates to govern the nation. Because 16-17 year-olds dont vote, the government could not have or see any reason to please us, since we dont have any immediate impact on the government continuing to stay in power or not... (Participant D)

The belief that YP are apolitical is entrenched and institutionalised in Nigerian politics (Ukeje, 2001; Coyne and Gallagher, 2011). Thus, to include youths in political exercises

along with the system of governance entails making new spaces for the youth, including enabling them to vote. Participant C comment generated some discussions regarding reconsideration of the voting age. As observed in the focus group and interview guide, I did not ask any questions regarding voting, however in the focus group discussions some participants questioned whether the voting age could be reduced, as explained in detail through research question 3 in the next section.

Having discussed RQ2 in relation to the three main themes which were identified as personal attributes, socio-cultural factors, political elements and subthemes such as inexperience, limited life encounters, logistics, time and location, deference to Elders, law and order, lack of independence, lack of family engagement, upheavals and violence in the political system and lack of impact on the system of government, we will now move on to examine the ways in which young peoples engagement is promoted (RQ3).

6.12.3 RQ3: Young People Engagement in Policy in NDR

RQ3: In what ways are young peoples engagement in policy processes promoted in the Niger Delta Region?

Several themes emerged form the process of coding the data that describe the ways in which young people are engaged in processes of policy formation in the Niger Delta. These themes are divided into four main themes and eight sub-themes. These are shown in Table 6.3, which presents overview of themes relating to Research question 1 (RQ1), concerning the ways in which young people are engaged in policy processes in the Niger Delta.

Table 6.3: Challenges to YPE in policy implementation

RQ3 Main themes	Main theme Definition	Sub Themes	Sub theme definition
(A) Overcoming systemic challenges	Methods of addressing the challenges to YP engagement	1. Provide evidence of engagement	To demonstrate and show evidences of respect and trust for YP
		2. Assign specific responsibilities	YP are Motivated when they are Assigned with Tasks
		3. Provide opportunities for all YP	Enfranchisement can prompt political Leaders to engage with YP
(B) Foster personal motivation	Methods of stimulating YPs willingness to engage	1. Harness existing enthusiasm	YP Demonstrate Eagerness in advocacy and assigned tasks
		2. Advocacy for YP engagement	YP given Political Opportunity to Advocate
		3. Demonstrate willingness and consideration	YP perceive considerate community engagement
		4. Representation	YP given platforms and ability to represent themselves
		5. Celebrate positive personal attributes	YP perceive recognition from engaging
		6. Education for engagement skills	YP engage in education that will support engagement processes
		7. Providing ethical financial incentives	YP are awarded ethical incentives for engagement activities

6.13 RQ3 Main Theme A Overcoming Systematic Challenges

Main Theme A is called overcoming systematic challenges and is defined as the Methods of addressing the challenges to YP engagement. This section explains how the interviewees viewed the challenges to YPE in the policy and decision-making processes. Some approaches identified by YP and core participants include loyalty, supporting responsibility and accountability, and political emancipation and empowerment.

6.13.1 RQ3 Main Theme A (MTA) Subtheme 1: Provide Evidence of Engagement

Main Theme A Subtheme 1 is called Provide evidence of engagement and is defined as to demonstrate and show evidences of respect and trust for young people. As explained with regard to the challenges to engagement, unidirectional approaches of regard and respect from YP to duty bearers and elders and their apparent inexperience comprised a deterrent to YPE. To motivate their engagement, YP commented that policy makers have to demonstrate some evidence of respect and trust for their individuality and put them into perspectives whereby they are viewed as being worthy of consultation, even if their comments or views are not objective or seasoned with more extensive experience. They disagreed with the argument presented in the previous section regarding life inexperience making it impossible for them to make positive and meaningful contributions to decisions and policy making. YP argued that duty bearers, including policy makers, must value their abilities and qualities and complement their deficiencies by discoursing with them and explaining in clear details the decisions in a polite way and with respect. As commented by some YP:

The views that youths are to be told and not comment and be heard needs to be repudiated.

They need to respect and trust our views and allow us some opportunities... (Participant C)

As for me, in my view it involves respect and trust. Our personality and human rights deserve to be respected and valued. They need to regard our very person and our human rights. They should hear us, even if our comments dont make sense... (Participant D)

6.13.2 RQ3 Main Theme A (MTA) Subtheme 2: Assign Specific Responsibilities

Main Theme A Subtheme 2 is called assign specific responsibilities and is defined as young people are motivated when they are assigned with tasks. The research found that when responsibilities are presented to YP and them observed their impact on that particular project, YP are motivated to engage more. Some youths commented that giving them the privileges to take responsibility for embarking on certain assignments motivate their enthusiasm to engage in a project. For instance, some organisers of Youth Advocacy Rallies commented that their enthusiasm grew to the extent that they did not want to be absent, since the responsibility of getting data on drug abuse and prostitution was given to them. They stated that they were engaged in the discussions regarding what should be done about the collected data. The outcome was that the uncompleted and dilapidated buildings used for nefarious activities detrimental to society were demolished as a result of YPE in political decision making about socio-economic issues. One YP commented:

If given the opportunities of leadership the young peoples can show their competences, just like we demonstrated in the drugs abuse and prostitution issues. Lots more could be done on vital issues if only we were presented with opportunities and the needed support... (Participant D)

As noted above, the key for YP is to be presented with opportunities and responsibilities; it is about the motivation that arises from being accorded genuine responsibilities and effective

accountabilities. YP deserve to be supported in order to engage effectively so that duty bearers and elders may not underrate them.

Formulating policy requires time and complex processes, which are recognised as a challenge to YPE in policy formulation. YP require support and motivation, as well as necessary education, in order to engage in political processes and thus develop their experience. Some participants identified political parties as the appropriate bodies to provide political education, communication, responsibilities (i.e. role allocation and facilitation) and financial assistance:

The political parties and representatives should educate and engage us, the youth, in all political activities; by so doing we will learn and benefit the system... (Participant D)

Another core participant articulated that if the YP are not given responsibility, accountability and support they cannot act as adults and duty bearers:

We can always make it significant as elders, adults and duty bearers to form support for young peoples voices, a hearable voice. We have to educate young people who can recognise key political issues, to position them in the right perspective and accord them with responsibility and accountability and embrace the correct strategies and methods to make young people participate effectively with policy makers... (Participant B)

6.13.3 RQ3 Main Theme A (MTA) Subtheme 3: Provide Opportunities for All YP

Main Theme A Subtheme 3 is called Provide opportunities for all YP and is defined as enfranchisement can prompt political leaders to engage young people. The previous chapter presented the argument that there is formidable control of political parties engagement in YPP formulation by youth wings. Another argument was that the YP Assemblies were

only for those that are up to the age of voting. The emancipation of YP was perceived as engagement in the formulation of policy, whereby YP could acquire political capital (e.g. having the capacity to vote and to be voted into the political positions in all arms of government). YP argued that emancipation and enfranchisement may prompt political leaders and duty bearers to participate with YP and enable them to have an impact on the system of governance.

While politics has a significant impact on policy formulation (Ponder, 2012; Howlett and Mukherjee, 2014), policies themselves create legislative issues in politics (Ikporukpo, 1989). It is impossible to talk of engagement in policy formulation without acknowledging the political implications this entails. Focus group participants collectively argued that the age for voting should be reduced to 16 years. Some core participants appreciated these sentiments while others did not.

YP in NDN understand that they may engage more with grassroots policy issues if given the opportunities to determine those who govern them. Thus, if political capital (i.e. trust, goodwill and respect earned in pursuit of policies) is given to YP for them to become representatives in democratic government, then any incumbent regime would be compelled to consult with YP in order to gain their endorsement (Ukeje, 2001). In this study, all YP participants argued that the voting age should be reduced to 16 years, while some core participants strongly argued that the voting age should remain where it is. However, some important political figures were sympathetic to the case for reducing the voting age:

It [reducing the voting age] appears coherent on the basis that if young people aged 16-19 years wish to engage in policy making either from the grassroots to any level, then emancipation and enfranchisement will strengthen their momentum... (Participant A)

Participant B (Regional Co-ordinator) revealed that their association has been campaigning through the Federal Government and the Senate Committee members to reduce the voting age to 16 to support YPE, mainly on the basis that YP can achieve good representation in

the political system. The Nigerian Youth Parliament in Article 5 stated that YP should have the privilege to engage in all circles of society. The Youth Parliament defines a youth as a person between 16-38 years old, and it implicitly considers that repudiating the right of 16 year-olds to participate in elections is an infringement of their human rights under the Youth Parliament Act (Young Peoples Policy Act, 2009).

Core participants who did not agree with the appeal to bring down the electoral age argued that some YP of 16-18 years cannot comprehend the basics principles of governmental and political issues that may arise. In the argument, they suggested civil education training for such YP to enable them to be competent to participate, with the conception that adequate civil education can help this group of YP make informed decisions when they become adults:

The perceptions of the electorate are that adults are good at making informed decisions, and because young people become adults at 18-20, the age for voting doesnt need to change so that these youths can comprehend political issues and contest for elections... (Participant B)

However, this view was opposed by someone from the same organisation:

To comprehend political issues the young people dont need to be adults. There are lots of adults who dont even comprehend political issues, yet they still contest and vote in elections. However, the electorates in most cases in our region dont comprehend and often dont agree with their manifestos, but still vote them because of identity and tribalism, so in my view 16 year-old youths have the capacity to like or challenge policies on ground. When they become 16 they are already in secondary education, considering philosophical ideas, and understanding it practically means day-to-day issues. Hence, they are suitably shrewd to take care of civil responsibilities... (Participant D)

The argument regarding the inexperience of 16-18 year-old youths often demoralizes the drive of YPE. Trying to enhance YPE in public policies at any level while refusing YP the chance to vote on the assumption that they are inexperienced is pointless. Thus, if saying that voting

to select an electorate is done by experienced adults, then it will not be possible for this group of 16-18 year-old YP to make meaningful contributions to policy issues, which involve consultation abilities and good mental capabilities. Furthermore, it may be presumed that if the 16-18 year-old youths are inexperienced to vote, that means that they are inexperienced to be engaged in discussions relating to policy issues. A similar argument was made against enfranchising people aged below 21, or indeed women. While democracy is premised on the assumption that electors are competent to understand that for which they vote, in terms of voting for representatives in a parliamentary system the staunch refusal to extend the franchise below the arbitrary age of 18 begins to look like gerontocracy, as implicit in the apocalyptic scenario envisaged by an adult participant:

Offering a 16-18 year-old youth the privilege to contest and vote in an election can be turbulent. Simply envisage a parliament brimming with youths and them becoming ministers or governors of the state; these youths will assume that they are presently equivalent or better than their senior citizens and may affront them... (Participant D)

This echoes the discourses on social and cultural elements, as examined earlier in this chapter regarding loyalty to the duty bearers and elders, which hinders YPE. Some adult participants utilize loyalty and regards for elders or duty bearers and the authorities as an excuse to repudiate the YP the chance to meaningfully contribute towards the political circle or issues. Some youths who participated in this research understand that empowering and emancipating them will enable them to effectively make impact and structure the political circle and issues in the society, which will motivate political engagement and involvement in policy making in society.

While the African Union (2009, cited in Joseph, 2013) affirms the need for YP to study and understand politics, it does not actively involve YP in political issues due to the entrenchment of traditional attitudes (i.e. a lack of initiative) (Vite, 2018). However, youth parliaments throughout democratic governments in Africa are increasingly calling for the enfranchisement

of YP and their engagement in politics at all levels.

6.14 RQ3 Main Theme B- Foster Personal Motivation

Main Theme B is called foster personal motivation to engage and is defined as the Methods of stimulating YPs willingness to engage. Although there are numerous endemic challenges to YPE, YP focus group participants revealed their desire to effectively participate and contribute to the policies and political process. The NGO and Youth Assembly members expressed their desire to engage and make contributions to the political process and policy making. Their drive to engage in any assigned task can be classified as being due to passion and personal attributes. However, it appears there is a kind of gender disparity in their rationale to engage in assign tasks, which I observed when comparing the words that the YP used. I observed that the drive and motivations expressed by some of the YP sounded masculine or feminine (iterating gender stereotypes). The male YP were more aspirational and concerned with affluence, while the female YP often sounded more affectionate and supporting (Hartjen and Priyadarsini, 2003). This conceptual interpretation is shown in Figure 6.1 and explained in the following sections.

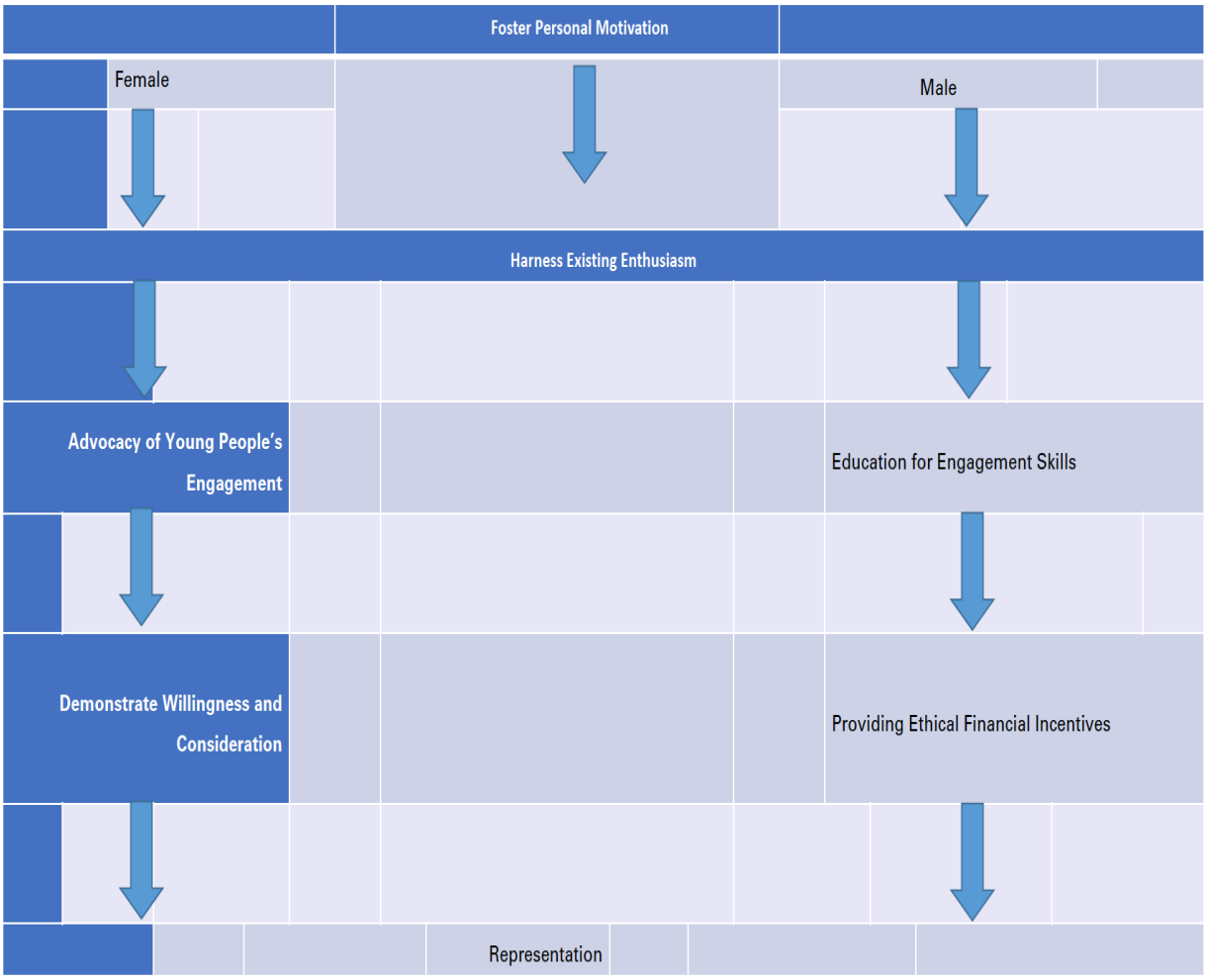

Figure 6.1: Conceptual interpretation

6.14.1 RQ3 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 1: Harness Existing Enthusiasm

Main Theme B Subtheme 1 is called Harness existing enthusiasm and is defined as young people demonstrate eagerness in advocacy and assigned tasks. Harness existing enthusiasm concerns YPE and assignment in tasks to assist other YP, rather than for their own personal interests. Their perception for being selfless is to advocate YP emancipation and empowerment, loyalty and the voice of representation for YP.

6.14.2 RQ3 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 2: Advocacy for Young Peoples Engagement

Main Theme B Subtheme 2 is called advocacy for young peoples engagement and is defined as young people given political opportunity to advocate. The females YP remarked that in the NDN women are marginalised, and if given political privileges they could use this opportunity to advocate YP emancipation alongside the more mainstream drive for the emancipation of women:

Girls emancipation and empowerment is significant, because it will enable me to contest for influential positions during election time. I dont want the men to all be in control, because Im happy I was nominated to officiate the discussion. Im very sure I demonstrated that we, the women, are good duty bearers... (Participant D)

6.14.2.1 RQ3 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 3: Demonstrate Willingness and Consideration

Main Theme B Subtheme 3 is called demonstrate willingness and consideration and is defined as young people perceive considerate community engagement. Some of the female YP commented that they wanted to altruistically engage in the community assign tasks or project so as to assist in address some of the challenges in their communities.

6.14.2.2 RQ3 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 4: Representation

Main Theme B Subtheme 4 is called representation and is defined as young peoples given platforms and ability to represent themselves. The female YP commented that they engage in community projects and by demonstrating such representation justified their ability to address issues.

When we engage in community projects it encourages other youths and the duty bearers and elders in our community can testify, we are hardworking... (Participant D)

Here the female YP saw the task as a process to show their fitness to duty bearers, elders and to demonstrate an enthusiastic voice for all YP in their community.

6.14.2.3 RQ3 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 5: Celebrate Positive Personal Attributes

Main Theme B Subtheme 5 is called celebrate positive personal attribute and is defined as YP perceive recognition from engaging. Personal attributes concern the dimension whereat YP decide to engage in politics for what will benefit them and what they will personally achieve from the engagement process, particularly experience, skill acquisition and remuneration.

6.14.2.4 RQ3 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 6: Experience

Main Theme B Subtheme 6 is called Experience and is defined as young peoples engage in education that will support engagement processes. Some YP said they engage in community-assigned tasks because this will make them become popular and experienced. One male TV show presenter commented:

As a TV presenter, I gain experience from my show programmes and I think it makes me very popular. I cant tell where it may lead me, I keep the window open as a youth... (Participant D)

Another participant explained what drove him to engage with his organisation:

I wanted to be enlightened so that I can one day be a politician and contest for political position, so I need to be popular and gain experience... (Participant D)

The YP also commented that they engage in community task projects because they need to acquire good skills to fit into the labour market and develop themselves:

It was my dream to work in the media house. My brother told me about the TV show, so I was glad to come here to engage in the presentation and also engage in skills acquisition, working to rove the microphones... (Participant D)

6.14.2.5 RQ3 Main Theme B (MTB) Subtheme 7: Providing Ethical Financial Incentives

Main Theme B Subtheme 8 is called providing ethical financial incentives and is defined as young people are awarded ethical incentives for engagement activities. Some YP commented that they engage in the rallies due to some stipends awarded to attendees, as remarked by one participant:

It may not have been possible for me to attend all the young peoples rallies, because I was driven by the stipends I received from the rallies, it helps solve my transportation worries... (Participant D)

6.15 Summary

This chapter presented data result on the challenges to young peoples engagement in policy implementation process which are best presented in three main themes (A) Personal Attributes (B) Socio-cultural Factors, and (C) Political Elements. Furthermore, these themes are breakdown into sub-themes:

MTA1 Maturity, MTA2 Experience, MTA3 Logistical barriers, MTB1 Tradition of community authority, MTB2 Lack of adult status, MTB3 Attitudes within families, MTC1 Political

turbulence, MTC2 YP Perceived lack of impact.

In this chapter the main themes explained qualitatively the various issues that contribute to the challenges to young peoples engagement in policy implementation process. While the sub-themes show the results of challenges that YP encounter in the quest to engage in policy formulations that will influence their subjective wellbeing.

Again, for research question 3, these chapter also presented in detail the ways in which young people engagement in policy processes are promoted and are presented in terms of two main themes (A) Overcoming Systematic Challenges, and (B) Fostering Personal Motivation.

Thus, in turn these are further understood in more detail through the following sub-themes:

MTA1 Provide evidence of engagement, MTA2 Assign specific responsibilities, MTA3 Provide opportunities for all YP, and MTB1 Harness existing enthusiasm, MTB2 Advocacy for YP engagement, MTB3 Demonstrate willingness and consideration, MTB4 Representation, MTB5 Celebrate positive personal attributes, MTB6 Education for engagement skills, MTB7 Providing ethical financial incentives.

Furthermore, as the main themes describe the various qualitative approaches used to promote young peoples engagement, the sub-themes describe the results of strategies that explain the means in which young people are motivated in practice. Thus, the main themes could be seen as again macro-level themes and the sub-themes could be considered as the micro level practices relating how macro approaches function within the context of this study.

The next chapter will move on to present the discussion and conclusion of this research

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION: THE NATURE OF YOUNG PEOPLES ENGAGEMENT

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter I work through a series of three interesting connections that emerge from the nature of young peoples engagement: the relationship between the processes of young people engagement; challenges to young peoples engagement; and methods of young peoples engagement. These engagements are conceptual demonstrations of the qualitative natures of young peoples engagement within the contexts of this study. Developing on the young peoples structures that emerged from my data during my analysis process (see 6.1, 6.2 and 7.1, 7.2), the processes of young peoples engagement describe relationship between formulation and implementation of young peoples policy while the challenges to young peoples engagement

are systematic in nature, and the methods of promoting YP are better understood through acknowledging to present young people with positive, skilful opportunities.

Furthermore, in this discussion, each approach to engagement is linked and demonstrated as a model which describes the nature of young peoples engagement in NDN, as it addresses answers to the main research question, which is What is the nature of young peoples political involvement in policy processes of formulation and implementation in Nigeria (Niger Delta)? A merged model is presented at the conclusion of the discussion section chapter 8, which coordinate the various relationships of the nature of young people.

7.2 Reviewing My Contextual and Perspective

In this study, I have demonstrated and presented in detail the nature of young peoples engagement in NDN. Through each chapter, I have presented an understanding of the processes of young peoples engagement in policy formulation and implementation which seem to develop through a structure towards a further personal style of exploring YPE. I initially moved from a denser structured focus of established democracy to an exploratory engagement practice. Thus, following this style, I adopted a qualitative approach that contextualised this research. Furthermore, this enhanced my understanding to exert better control in demonstrating the nature of YP in NDN. Following this, I adopted the theory of democracy regarding how to contribute to the development of the paradigm formulated by Woojin (2009) and Wallach (2006) on understanding how democratic theory functions in an established democratic society, demonstrating how this can contribute to the development of young peoples engagement towards shaping the views of NDN youth within the context of this study (see 1.7.2).

Wallach (2006) and Woojin (2009) contributed to the relationship between YPE and established democracy concerning the way it functions or meets the processes of engagement, how it addresses the systematic challenges to young people, and when and who promotes the

method that enhance YPE (see 1.9 and 1.10). Within the contexts of this study it is appropriate, therefore, that I direct this discussion towards the nature of young peoples political involvement in policy processes of formulation and implementation in NDN.

Furthermore, I am mindful that this discussion is presented based on my personal understanding of this research findings, which is very contextual. The inclusion of cross-referenced work stands as a third person in this research study. Also, I have taken time to ensure that the exploration of young peoples political involvement in policy processes of formulation and implementation in Nigeria is reliable; for instance, by substantiating my findings with every one of my participants and by reconnoitring further explanations on YPE and policy formulation and implementation in NDN.

Thus, the views I contribute, whilst considering the role of the others such as Jobard (2013), is substantiated in my own personal life experiences and situatedness with regards to my role and context of being a lecturer, teaching youth development; a research student having published five articles, with two accepted papers awaiting publication; a relief coordinator for a local NGO; an orphan; and a husband and father. While I have drawn on my personal context, knowledge, and experiences extensively throughout this research, it is incumbent on me to acknowledge my own role with regard to the emergent findings from inductive, constructivist data analysis, and to bracket my own role as an ancillary methodological consideration. My temporal situatedness contributed to the subjectivity of my prior research chapters, which cannot be overlooked (Anumba et al., 2008). Following this research context, I am allowing the readers of this research work to make positive connections of this study and see if the findings are resonating. By so doing the readers could be inspired and can be able to make decisions based on the study context. In this research journey, one of my motivations is note keeping (Anumba et al., 2008). Throughout this research work I have endeavoured to keep notes in my research diary. Again, personal reflections on my research experience and life encounters has help in guiding my research journey. The next section of this research will demonstrate and discussed some key areas of my findings.

7.3 Theoretical Framework for Discussion

Before I properly start the discussion of my study findings, it is important that I draw out the links between the current literature. This study is underpinned by democratic theory (Wallach, 2006; Woojin, 2009) (chapters 2 and 5). Bromell (2013) and Chakravarti (2016) see democratic theory as an established area of political theory that is mainly concerned with the exploration, explanation, and meaning of the concept of democracy. As I understand it, this could mean the moral bases, responsibilities, challenges, and attractiveness of democratic governance (see 2.3). Furthermore, Feit (2016) refers to democratic theory as the theoretical structure and design that reveals and elucidates the main structures and functions of a democratic form and its underlying structure of relationships, as articulated by Held and Patomaki (2006) (see1.7.2). Thus, in the context of this study, it can be suggested that democratic theory has two features: what the concept of democracy involves (Chakravarty, 2016), and the underlying structure of its relationships (Feit, 2016). For example, an inclusive social and cultural conditions of young citizens and YPE aids in the construction of democratic views (see chapter 2.5), based on the embeddedness of democracy in the context YPE in political and policy formulation (Gill, 2005). Based on my understanding, I believe that an inclusive approach in democracy can straighten YPE in democratic states like Nigeria to effectively think about the contemporary political issues confronting YP (see chapters 1.8 and 2.3).

Central to this position is the understanding that established democratic social structures are concerned about better policy implementations in decision-making processes and are characteristically capable to link established engagement structures to democratic policy structures (Held and Patomaki, 2006) (see 4.1). As such, democratic principles may infiltrate from the international level to the regional level, and help YP political development and democratic voices, with YP being motivated, encouraged, and empowered to undertake effective engagement (see 4.2 and 4.5). This study is in line with Bretts (2011a, 2011b) argument that policy procedures literature can improve the comprehension of YP, however this appears to

be under-used in researching YPE. My research also is in line with Gray et al. (2014), who argued that the literature on interest and civil groups bears valuable knowledge that could be applied to YP group engagement in a continuous decision-making programme.

7.4 Democracy in Practice and Theoretical Drives

According to Bua (2017), the pattern of government and non-governmental practice around citizenship engagement has been progressively supportive toward participatory components over established deliberative structures of democracy. This seems directly in reaction to the perceived low levels of political gathering enrolment and voter turnout, especially prevalent in connection to YPE. Lots of initiatives (opportunities) to support more YP political inclusions are guided by such ideas in education and the habit-shaping structures of engagement (Bua, 2017, p.160) (see 1.8 and 2.3).

Bua (2017, p.168) remains unsure of the promotion of YPE at the hierarchical structure initiatives organised by NGOs and the federal government. For example, a study by Harriger (2014) revealed that the initiative to advance YPE through Young Peoples Councils in the Ogoni area of NDN was believed to have had mixed outcomes. Furthermore, Doldor (2014) discovered that although the YP who were engaged in the Councils turned out to be significantly politically co-ordinated, the ability of the scheme to include non-politically engaged YP was limited. Similar criticisms have been made on initiating and energising enthusiasm among YP during election campaigns (Doldor, 2014; Felicetti, 2014). Crick (2014) critiqued that formal projects developed to expand engagement are often challenging regarding membership resources, implying that individuals who are willing to engage require time and awareness. However, this is a general issue, and does not redress the imbalance between those willing to engage and those who are passive (see 1.8).

The questions about the ideal approach to motivate and improve YPE are especially signifi-

cant to the circumstances of newer democratic settings, such as in Nigeria (Tonge and Mycock, 2009). Since YP are often the least politically engaged age group in Nigeria (Kingsley, 2013), some projects (e.g. the Developmental Scheme) that focus on improving engagement have been initiated by NGOs over recent years in Nigeria (Kingsley, 2013, p.55). Nevertheless, these are actualized in a hierarchical structure, frequently demonstrated in the global stages of organisations, which means that they are likely to be available to YP who are willingly engaging, and they are not geared toward outreach to passively disengaged YP (Thiery, 2011, p.89) (see1.8).

This is particularly challenging in the post-military context of modern Nigeria, where the functions of political engagement in supporting the current democratic system remain a topic of civil argument (Dommett, 2015). The procedure of democratisation since the transition from a military regime in 1999 has meant that the structures or institutional features of democratic government are now set up (Vetter, 2009). Thus, the lack of citizen engagement raises doubts about how effective this democratic government is with regard to accountability and the responsibility of elected representatives in local and national authorities (Diemer and Li, 2011; Osumah, 2016) (see1.8 and 1.11). The next section discusses answers to the three research questions focused on the processes of YPE, the systematic challenges of YPE, and the methods of promoting YPE in NDN.

7.5 Membership Enrolment as Process to Engagement

This chapter reviews the main findings from chapters 6 and 7 and emphasises the needs to subjectively involve myself in this research. My research was driven by the search to understand YP engagement in the formulation and implementation of policy processes in NDN, and to consider the methods used to promote or motivate YPE within the public arena in the region. I found that to some degree YPs roles have some challenges in policy formulation

and implementation processes due to numerous elements about the policy process of over-politicisation in NDN (chapter 6). Also, I found that YPE formats within the public arena were processes to promote and motivate, employing the advocacy network establishment, and utilising media broadcasts, the web, and the Youth Parliament. From the perspective of YP themselves, the panacea to overcome their engagement limitations in the process of policy is by granting them the right to vote.

In this study I found that membership enrolment expands opportunities for engaging in policy formulation. The MYC only accepted consultation with registered organisations or agencies at the time of formulating youth policy, thus YP who are not associated with such organisations do not have the privilege of making a contribution to YPP. Burd (2010) likewise found that the enrolment of YP in voluntary organisations advances and motivates their support for political engagement activities, which enables them to develop their potential in some areas like public speaking, team working, and listening and understanding other peoples perspectives on issues. Based on this study, I suggest that YP have to belong to or form registered organisations or agencies and associations to enhance their opportunities of becoming included in political activities and policy consultations.

7.6 Niger Delta Youth and Negotiations

While numerous studies sought more informal processes (Hartjen and Priyadarsini, 2003; Radda and Schensul, 2011), Joseph (2013) observed that formalizing some continuous processes that unite YP and decision-making has important advantages over informal dialogue, negotiations, and discussions. Lundasen (2013) argued that associations should function beyond minimal consultations and offer situations through which YPE is strongly immersed in the structure and culture of the organisation for effective decision making (see 4.3). Thus, as outlined in this research, the experience of the MYC, and that of the MYCSM in par-

ticular, demonstrates that conventional hierarchies and bureaucratic organisations could be confronted with challenges while starting and sustaining engagement (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014).

In the assessment of formal processes, Radda and Schensul (2011) argue for engagement to be established in YP daily routines, interactions, and domains. The formation of YP voluntary organisations may promote continuous consultation among policymakers and YP (Sleenoff and Ossweijer, 2015), involving mutual invitations extended to each other to engage in their domains. Furthermore, this would support the sustainment of engagement, offering opportunities for YP and elders (i.e., policymakers in this context) to meet and discuss issues of concerns (Radda and Schensul, 2011) (see 4.4). Besides, such organisations based in communities or villages may offer YP a domain to compete within the status quo, and if possible, to seek for alternative to support and strengthen YP qualities of productive citizenry (Oluwaleye, 2017), facilitated by the implication that YP engaging in the respectable community or village associations have less predisposition to the anti-social behaviours to which their age cohort is susceptible (Kwaymullina, 2016). Thus, this is the nature of YP engagement, as presented in Figure 7.1.

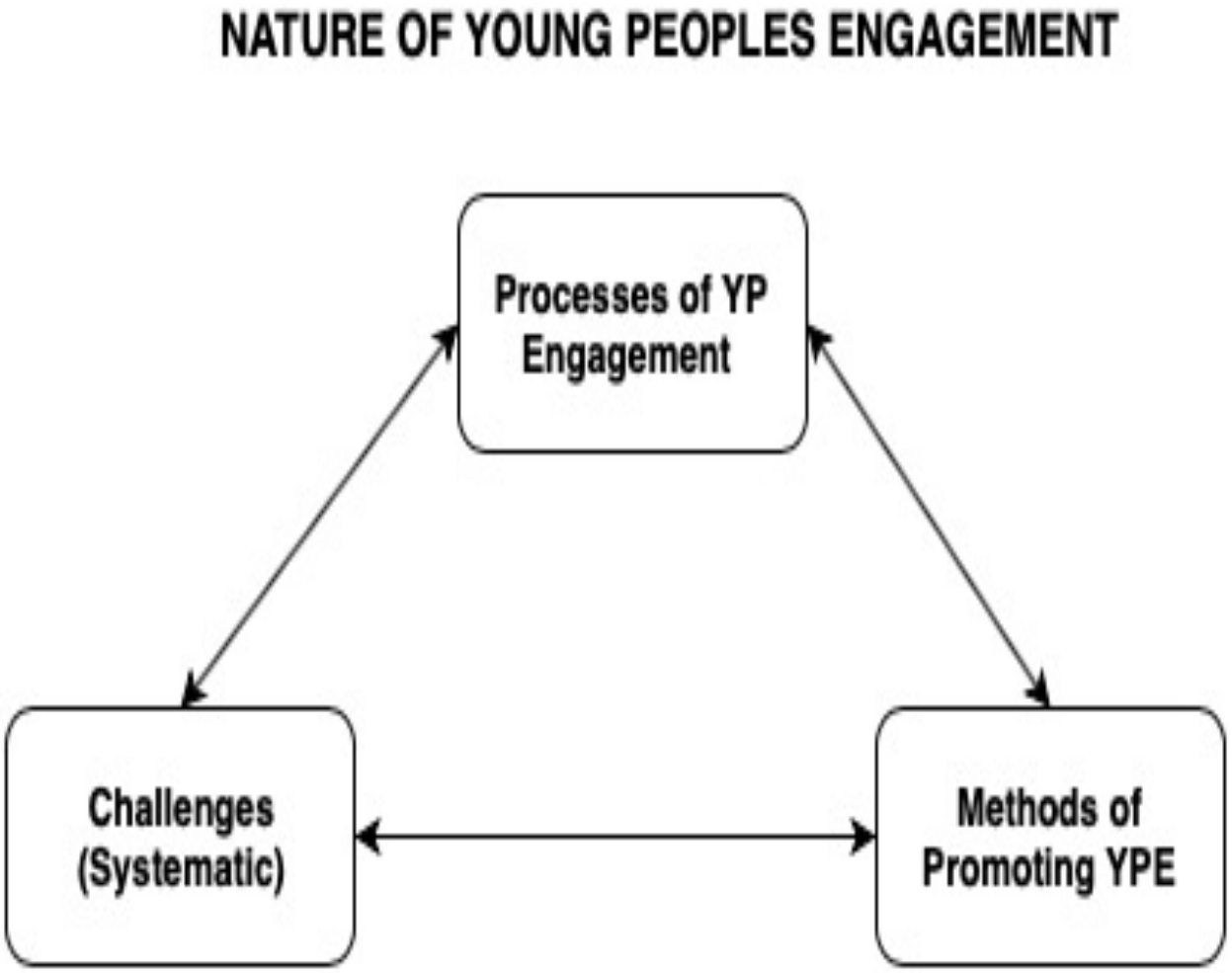

Figure 7.1: Nature of YPE

7.7 National and Regional Levels of Engagement Processes

The four main themes that emerge from the processes of young peoples engagement are policy planning, policy awareness and access, unregulated engagement, and motivating YP engagement. Policy planning is linked to policy awareness and access, in that participation in policy planning is recognised as an approach by which young people engage in policy processes, which happens when they are given opportunities to understand and have a full view of policy documents (Oluwaleye, 2017). Chapter 6 argued that YP have low involvement

in the formulation of YPP, and that they were not included in the implementation stage of policy. The disparity between YPE at the national and regional levels was also outlined. Put simply, at the regional level YP were engaged by means of advocacy rallies and media broadcasting, while they were not substantively engaged at the national level. I found that it appears possible to include YP in the regional and local stages of the engagement process rather than to include them at the national level. Chapter 7 explained and discussed the causes and challenges to including YP at the national stage.

The Nigerian national YPP is intensely affected by the prerequisites of the UNDP (2011), but in this study I found that some YP were nave about the APYP policy document concerning YPP, since the policy document itself is hard to access (Timmerman, 2009). Furthermore, the Nigerian approach regarding planning the YP political engagement process and policy suggested changes towards policy planning and awareness, with reforms positing that time-worn records or policies are observed by policy makers, who make minor amendments to future planning and policies so that YP can be aware of the updated copies (Iwochukwu, 2011, p.10).

It is possible for policy makers to encourage and support or to inhibit the chances of YP engaging in policy processes (Treseder, 1997), depending on the way in which elders perceive the role and potential of YPE. In this study I found that that policy makers seem willing to include YP in the policy process relating to policies for YP themselves. The YP were acknowledged to have the privilege and right to engage in any issues that relate to them. While stipulating some general pre-requisites for participation, policy-makers acknowledged YP right to engagement in principle, but in actuality they do not seem to believe that significant contributions can emanate from YP in policy discussion processes. This finding corroborates earlier research arguing that YP will probably be persuasive in the event that they have comprehension and capacity to persuade policy makers, but there is a disconnect between policy-maker norms of acknowledging YPE in theory and the way in which their behaviour and decisions inhibit such engagement in practice (Treseder, 1997; Fletcher, 2010),

as discussed in chapter 1.

7.8 Youth Inclusiveness in Policy Processes

Policy planning, policy awareness, and access are connected in turn to unregulated engagement and motivation for YP participation (National Youth Policy, 2011). In this study I found that grassroots political parties were an avenue of engaging young people in political and policy processes, preparing YP to be informed and organised. The approach used in the formulation of YPP at grassroots was campaigns and discussions, with the intention that this would contribute to YP awareness, however, these adversely affected the confidence of some YP and their associations (see 6.4.1). Furthermore, some civil society groups and NGOs were effectively barred from having access to policy documents and policymakers in NDN (Young Peoples Policy Act, 2009) (see 6.5). Based on this, it could be understood that awareness of YPP was facilitated by accessibility to politicians and policy makers (see 4.9 and 6.5). However, the regulated accessibility of the policy hinders YP awareness of it (UNDP, 2012, p.11) (see 6.5.1).

Support from government ministries was identified as another approach to encourage YP involvement in policy processes. Furthermore, the concern linking to knowledge and access to YPP and political engagement in NDN was one of the ways of supporting YPP (see 6.5.1). With the goal to engage and promote policy and political participation to all youths, the MYC initiated a campaign called the Niger Youth Initiative Project to prove youth awareness concerning social issues affecting them like conflict, drug addiction and HIV/AIDS.

The unregulated engagement of YP in the process of policy implementation was intensified by the confidentiality concerning the action strategy of the implementation policy. I found that there seem to be misperceptions regarding the existence and non-presence of the action strategy. The Young Peoples Policy Act (2009) particularly states in section 22.4.2 that

the Young Peoples Chambers are groups with important stakeholders, established with the action strategy for the policy implementation, yet the regional and urban co-ordinators of the MYC remarked that the presence of the action strategy was not made known to them (see 4.3.1). According to UNDP (2011, p.36), YP policies need to be integrated into national development plans; in the absence of such integration, policy formulation is likely to be an ineffectual and disorganised exercise: policies for YP need to be recognised with and link with the sectoral policies, and identify with the goals for regional development.

Furthermore, at the regional level, the MYC promoted YPP and engagement in administrative governance by establishing the Youth Parliament, to enable young people to have the opportunities to make an impact on regional policy and decisions, and to impart unto them the principles and values of democracy. As discussed in 7.6, YP non-participation in administrative governance is recognised as a challenge to participation in processes of public policy. Establishing the regional Youth Parliament seems to be a laudable method in developing new forums to incorporate YP in governance and politics.

7.9 Niger Delta Youth Disposition

Furthermore, the civil society groups that freely engaged YP demonstrated that there is no proof that a top-down or bureaucratic structure or ordinance is necessary to implement engagement. The MYC did not have substantive documentation, but it reported having a consistent meeting forum in order to appraise the Action Plan (chapter 4 and 6.7.1). Clearly this practice was integrated into the agencies, as a result of the logical awareness of the willingness to promote or motivate YPE and give YP a listening voice, based on openness and fairness, which involves mutual reformation. Hence, the connection between logical awareness and the practical procedure adopted seems to have been a motivating force that is of great significance in promoting and advancing the achievements of engagement. Therefore,

the procedures or structures should be adept to present extensive and documented ideas integrating an inclusive and transparent approach between YP and adults, particularly in terms of well-defined values, goals, and aims, and appraisal approaches should be established within an agreed timeline (7.7.2).

Again, motivating books and literature as well as documentation are required to integrate YP with approachable presentations of appropriate engagement with political processes, enabling them to understand approachable communication avenues, so that the fundamental value of their collective engagement is conceded, acknowledged, and actualized.

Although there is a general lack of development of distinctive involvement in engagement mediums, forms, and procedures, there has clearly been some improvement, as indicated by my research findings, including developing self-confidence and esteem, gratitude, belief, an awareness of being appreciated and sureness, enhancing social solidity and inclusiveness, promoting better awareness and understanding YPs rights and privileges, cultivating negotiations and listening skills, creating opportunities and a forum for voicing new ideas, and creating positive engagement skills. Thus, I deem it fitting that the significance of encouraging and supporting and promoting necessary modifications and impacts be acknowledged, so that YP themselves may understand that their contribution is substantive. The processes of engagement as illustrated below displays the relationship between young people and policy formulation processes (Figure 7.2). The next section discusses the challenges to young peoples engagement.

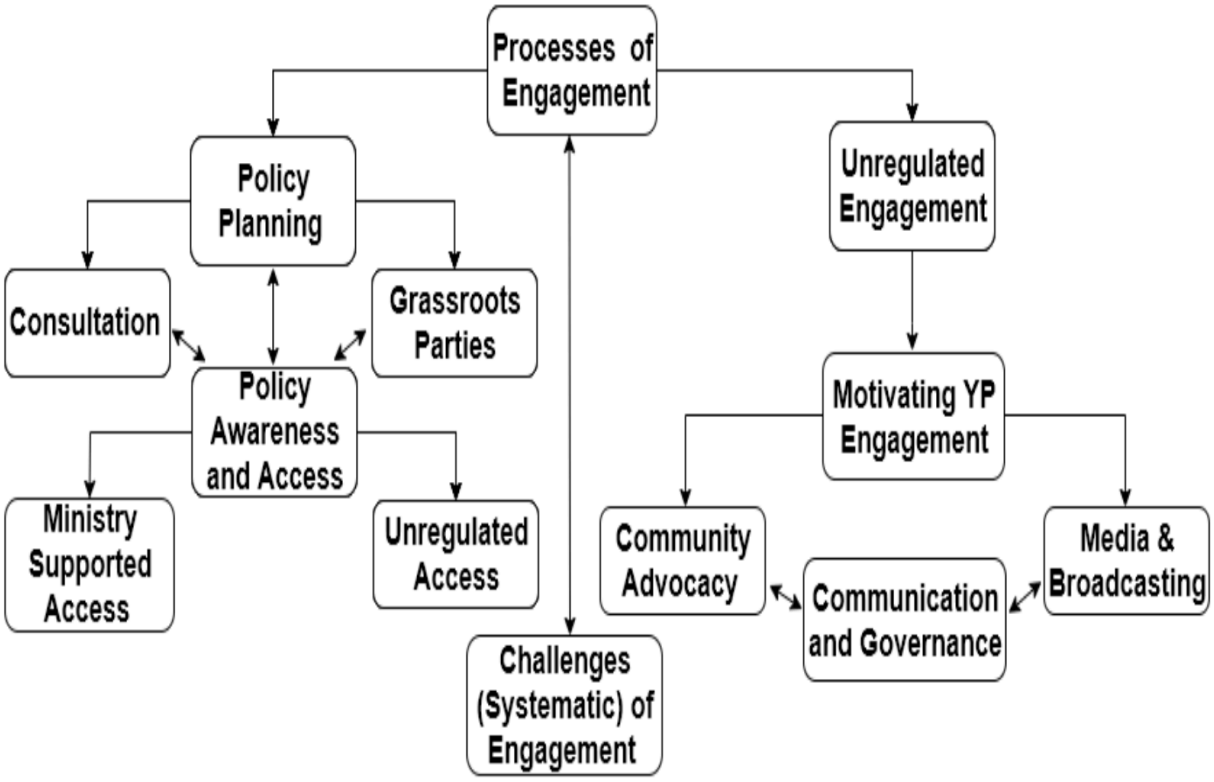

Figure 7.2: Processes of engagement

7.10 Over-Politicised Young Peoples Organisations in NDN

In chapter 6, I argued that political instabilities in NDN contributed to the challenges to YPE within the public arena. This section presents an outline of the instabilities and the way they formed YP organisations in NDN, which is vital to grasp why the civil servants at the MYC were hesitant to remark on the APYP policy implementation, as mentioned in chapter 1 and 5.

Following independence in 1960, Nigeria suffered eight coup dtats from 1966 to 1993, with

each new regime professing to administer YP development and transformation, seeking to canvass YP support through the MYC and its forerunners. YP organisations are thus central to the ideological constitution of the political system, and after tentative democratisation from 1999, each new administration has modified MYC agencies in all regions of the country with political appointments (see1.11). These recurrent changes in the government approaches or processes thus contribute to the disregard for YP in the formulation of policy, echoing the decree system used by the military regimes to rule the country with a top-down, hierarchical approach that paradoxically claimed to be fostering democratic inclusion and social service, which can be seen as political element (see 1.11.1 and 2).

Due to the self-interest of political parties and their aggressive co-opting of civil society institutions and the civil service itself, genuine democratic development in Nigeria is prevented (see 3.2). While ostensibly a vibrant democracy with a multiparty system of democratic government, the PDP and the All Progressive Congress (APC) wield effective control over most of the state apparatus and are in bitter opposition to one another, which affects the formulation of YPP from its roots. As discussed previously, the YPP was formulated initially by the PDP party during its ascendancy, but the subsequent APC regime jettisoned it because it was not in their manifesto, and a revised draft was approved. However, some commentators observed that rather than being a political manoeuvre, the later 2002 policy document is a genuine improvement on the 1999 version (Glennon, 2007) (see 6.4.1).

Nevertheless, the formulation and implementation of the YPP is unduly politicised to the extent that it resulted in the scenario whereby civil servants at the MYC were not willing to comment on policy issues regarding YP, and any who made comments that were not supportive of government views were laid-off. For instance, one departmental director in the MYC was fired after granting an interview to Africa Independent Television because he commented and expressed his dismay when the government in power rejected the 2015 policy; he then suggested that YP across the geopolitical zone should put pressure on the government to adopt the policy document (see 6.4.1).

Thus, it was argued that the process or procedures of making policy and politics are inextricably linked, therefore efforts to professionalise policy-making, in terms of differentiating policy making from party politics, are not practical or realistic (Timmerman, 2009; Nsirim-Worlu, 2012; Woodman and Wyn, 2012). The policy method is concerned with mobilisation, in the quest for interests, concepts, and notions, and relating with or between individuals, whereby their individual success is dependent on their power and control of resources (chapter 4). It appears that within the formulation and implementation of YPP, political appointees exercise more power than civil servants, and perhaps consider themselves more influential in the bureaucratic system and offices (see 3.3). However, the civil servant has a way of causing obstacles and frustrating policies formulated by political appointees (Hyunjaejae-Ho, 2015, p.45).

7.11 Socio-Cultural Hindrances to Young Peoples Engagement in NDN

The connection between personal attributes, social cultural factors, and political elements basically foments the main challenge of the degree of disbelief among adults regarding whether they should give YP more opportunities in the engagement process, especially in traditional community settings in ND, because of the perception that YP lack maturity. This is clearly a fundamentally challenging factor of participation in government ministries and agencies as well as NGOs, which portrays a level of unwarranted apprehension. For instance, there is a notion that elders control will be misplaced, as well as the strong perception of elders that YP do not require experience to manage empowerments. Furthermore, I sought to understand how these perceptions compounded the notions that YP are considered as lesser members of civil society. Such sentiments were articulated by some participants: if YP are treated fairly well they will reciprocate; Im not sure YP are ready to grow up to be elders, they want to

remain themselves, and would rather be in control (participant A, December 2016). Such misgivings and differentiation are problematic, as they do not allow the possibility of YP taking part in policy implementations (see 3.6).

The above negative remarks are illustrative of the widespread perceptions of most elders, which pose a challenge to the improvement of YP participation in policy formulation. Thus, the elders need a fundamental change to their approach to YP and culture in order to support YP, necessitating a clear definition of associated values, and acknowledging positive outcomes that will be useful to government ministries, agencies, NGOs, and civil society through engagement practice, as this presents good opportunities to listen to the voices of YP. This study found that there was less awareness of how to help YP develop a positive realistic engagement among government ministries, agencies, and NGOs, as well as YP themselves. The perceptions about YPE reveal a failure to see the opportunities for YP to bring about positive contributions in the policy implementation process. Elders themselves believed that the main challenge was societal structures, and also the lack of adult statues and resources, and they noted the need to make time for YPE and not present autocratic settings to frustrate YP in civil society (see 6.9).

7.12 Elders and Adults as Allies to Niger Delta Youth

The significance of elders in advancing and motivating the voice of YP was highlighted by Drake, Fergusson and Griggs (2014). Thus, as discussed in 6.3, this research found that YP ought to be encouraged and supported by exemplary trained elders or adults, to broaden youth engagement by recognizing areas for adjustment. Furthermore, building on Clare (2001) and Francis and Lorenzo (2002), elders can detail techniques for practical steps forward to empowerment, particularly for women, to participate in decision-making, especially in particular programmes or schemes, which would be inhibited without elders arbitration and

advocacy. Ezeibe and Ikeanyibe (2017) argued that YPs limited power status suggests that they could support engagement where there are elders to promote, facilitate, and motivate the engagement process, although independent activism for YP in some situations is not an attainable or practical objective (as explained in 7.6).

This research found that elders acknowledge the need for respecting and giving attention to YP, and awareness and gratitude are elements that motivate effective engagement with YP. Thus, I believe that respect and attention contribute to positive engagements, which is a significant part of the overall matrix required for real participation to be established. However, this research identified that some socio-cultural practices comprise a barrier to YPE. Chapter 2 clearly explained the issues regarding elders and adults, discussing how the NDN region is a structured society with a gerontocratic system, in which relations between elders or adults and YP are organized based on age. Socio-cultural expectations require certain reciprocal codes of conduct (i.e. deference and respect) between YP and elders. NDN culture emphasises reverence for elderly people and those in authority, and non-deferential (to say nothing of antagonistic) political expressions would be perceived to be egregious social violations, making elders lose face (e.g. being humiliated or embarrassed by being confronted and publicly opposed by a young person), which is viewed as insolent (see2.8).

YP discreetly submit to adultism, and as such are unable to challenge or contradict the decisions adults and elders make on their behalf (or in general). This method of social and cultural life is affected by a confidence and belief in progenitor worship, and primordial beliefs that ancestors are conducive to the fortunes of the living (Ikporukpo, 1986). In this paradigm, elders are closer to the ancestors than YP, and are thus intrinsically elevated in status. Consequently, regard and respect for elderly people is believed to be a source of positive results in life. The ramifications of this hierarchical structure are that YP could only influence and get regard and reverence from people who are younger than them, as they must demonstrate dutifulness and regards to the elders.

Within the family, village, and community spheres it is unwelcome for YP to differ from or oppose their elders in making decisions. YP prefer to stay silent instead of making comments that their elders may not favour. According to Wray-Lake and Hart (2012), YP who continually voice their views are straying from the acceptable norms of society and are viewed with disapprobation due to their violation. With this cultural belief system, any participatory exertion which involves an element of implicit equality between YP and elders might be counter-beneficial and prone to failure if it invokes antagonism with elders (2.8).

7.13 The Challenge of Young Peoples Disparities

De Backer and Jans (2002) noted the need for gendered analysis on YPE due to the common differences in opportunities for young men and women to access the public arena. Furthermore, political party affiliations and roles are often extensions of their basic positions in various family settings. In political media broadcasts there is often a blatant lack of gender representativeness, with male participants usually outnumbering and overshadowing females. Based on a study of YP aged 16-21 years old, Christian and Okey (2017) found that males had a higher level of civil comprehension than females, which may reflect the way in which young males have more participation in the political arena, and (on a deeper level) the way in which public institutions have historically been constituted for and by men (a fundamental socio-cultural factor). Gender is clearly a very significant component of political engagement among YP. It was argued in chapter 1 that studies on gender support that the traditional pattern of village or community engagement is extrapolated to the broader civil society and governance sphere, whereby men generally dominate decision-making, which is evident among YP as well as elders (see 3.3).

The poor achievement of government agencies in YPE was attributable to poor investment of required resources and allocated time to facilitate the correct operation of available YPE,

and it was identified that YP should receive training and help in this process, similar to Radda and Schensuls (2011) point about the political element (chapter 3). The factor of poor investment, which often necessitates enhancing, promoting, and supporting an updated policy or formulating new policy aims and objectives, manifests a dereliction of governmental duties stipulated by the UNCRC (1989). Similarly, the deficiency in systematic evaluation procedures to observe and prove the achievements and benefits failed to reflect the well-defined and precise aims of engagement programmes, reflecting a lack of genuine interest among government ministries (chapter 6).

As discussed in chapter 7 concerning the challenges to YPE, a 15 year-old woman desired to create enthusiasm for matters relating to political issues per se, but her views were opposed. This reflects what De Backer and Jans (2002) contended, that young women see parents and guardians as hindrances or challenges to their activism within the public arena. According to Brett (2011), guardians and parents assume a focal role in urging YP to be civil and politically dynamic, thus if they inhibit female participation this forms a substantive barrier. Wilson and Wilks (2013) also argued that guardians and parents could motivate or discourage YPE. Therefore, participatory activity requires the cooperation and endorsement of guardians, particularly for teenagers.

The NDN region has undergone different political upheavals, beginning from when Nigeria started practicing democracy in 1999 (Uwem, 2015). The subsequent voting campaigns contained sporadic outbreaks of violence, in some cases involving YP being killed (Akpan, 2017). Similarly, Arowosegbe (2009) remarked some reported situations of brutality and violence which led to the demise of some young people during the political campaigning period, arranged by different political rivals. The research model demonstrates the relationship between some of the challenges to engagement; the next section discusses the methods used in promoting engagement.

7.14 The Cost of Engagement

I found that there were two main methods of engaging YP in the policy process: ad-hoc or impromptu consultation by means of YP conferences and rallies; and on-going discussions by means of Youth Parliaments and (increasingly) social medial. However, as previously discussed, the Youth Parliament did not include those aged 16-18, and social media is often periodically unavailable to YP without internet access. In most NDN homes there is limited web access, and many YP may visit business centres for internet access, where they must essentially pay to present their views online (e.g. blogging). This expense is a major disincentive for their political engagement online.

Social medial has robust usage among urban populations, and web access in local regions in NDN is often on possible. Chapter 6 highlighted that some YP remarked that they were unable to be in the youth rallies and conferences, since the venue was in the cities and the cost of transportation was expected to be borne by them personally. The general picture that emerges is that YP have limited and sporadic opportunities to engage with political processes in general, and their sphere of operation is mainly limited to party activism, with little material support from political parties themselves. It is highly significant that future efforts should increase the accessibility of engagement initiatives.

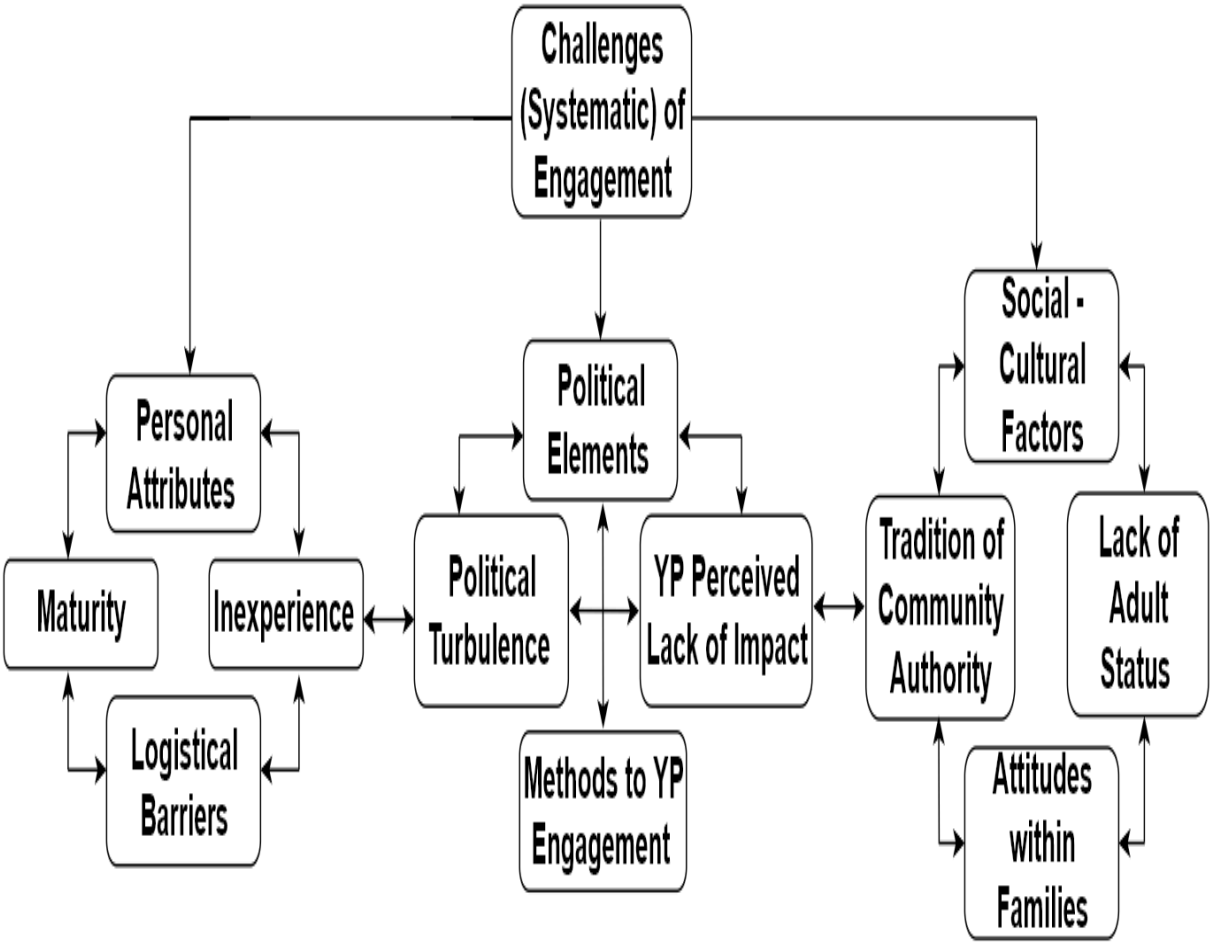

Figure 7.3: Shows the study model of systematic challenges of YPE, based on the study findings.

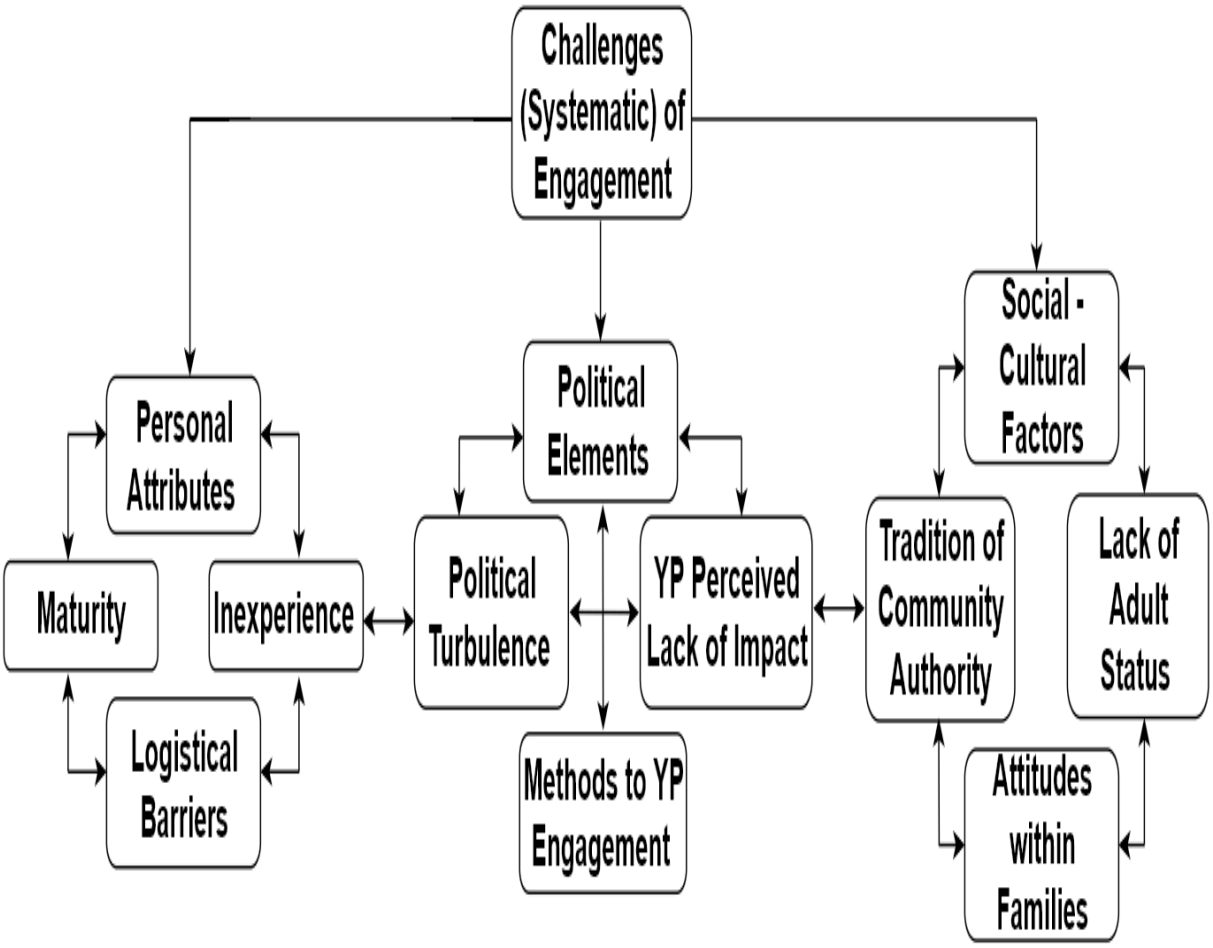

Figure 7.4: Study model of systematic challenges of YPE

7.15 Means of Promoting Engagement in NDN

Furthermore, the transformation of policy necessitates engagement in the formulation process itself, by means of a pre-defined, planned approach, but I found that the NGOs and agencies were systematically hampered by state or regional bureaucratic procedures of implementation. However, it is sensible to imagine that implementation could be applied this way, especially in connection with state and regional standards all calibrated to promote civil society development. However, the current systematic method limits the dissemination of engagement procedures, as it presents the lack of any significant documentation within the concerned government ministries that could develop and promote the strategic concept that engagement is perceived to be delivering improved achievements to NGOs and agencies. Equally, there is no proof that the processes of implementation have engaged YP in any positive participation as it concerns them (3.3 and 6.7).

7.16 Personal Attributes

In chapter 7 I sought out the research context of responsibilities and accountability, and how YP presented good comprehensions of the required function of engagement framework, which clearly demonstrates the customs within communities in the region. Particularly, this acknowledges that regardless of YPs background (i.e. in the economic, socio-political, age, culture, gender, and geographical dimensions), they can determine the observed rules of society and acknowledge issues of cooperative responsibility concerning norms and values (chapter 7.5.2). These are essential attributes to the practice of positive democratization, for example, accountability, liberty, autonomy, self-esteem, contentment, and fairness. They also support the recognition of YPs rights regarding diplomacy and integration in their given locales and political communities (chapter 3.5 and 7.6.2). Thus, the fieldwork exercise demonstrated that participants responses exhibited altruistic attitudes and maturity, which

encourages and motivates an organised approach for positive behaviour. The YPs abilities uncover their competences or capabilities either on personal level or on collective grounds.

The research also presents issues regarding diversity in experiences that have less impact on YPs ability to comprehend and voice their views on matters that relate to them.

Furthermore, this research sought to outline the capabilities, responsiveness, abilities, and aptitudes of YP. They have the required capabilities to implement policy and could be able to distinguish and understand policy transformations. YP are able to present effective capabilities and offer stability on issues relating to them, and they demonstrate aptitude to discuss and deliberate on views and be coherent as well as persuasive regarding contemporary matters of concern to them. YP have the capacity to make good judgments, especially in situations that relate to them (chapter 7.6.2). They are able to present a better degree of sureness and comprehend the responsibilities and limitations of where they find themselves. YP in this study comprehend the assimilation and integration of their encounters, and the disparities among the methods of dialogue and deliberation.

7.17 The Separation Between Principles and Practice

It is possible for policy makers to encourage and support or to inhibit the chances of YP engaging in policy processes (Treseder, 1997), depending on the way in which elders perceive the role and potential of YPE. In this study I found that that policy makers seem willing to include YP in the policy process relating to policies for YP themselves. The YP were acknowledged to have the privilege and right to engage in any issues that relate to them. While stipulating some general pre-requisites for participation, policy-makers acknowledged YP right to engagement in principle, but in actuality they do not seem to believe that significant contributions can emanate from YP in policy discussion processes. This finding corroborates earlier research arguing that YP will probably be persuasive in the event that

they have comprehension and capacity to persuade policy makers, but there is a disconnect between policy-maker norms of acknowledging YPE in theory and the way in which their behaviour and decisions inhibit such engagement in practice (Treseder, 1997; Fletcher, 2010), as discussed in chapter 1.

7.18 Drivers of Young Peoples Engagement

In this study I found that YP are driven and motivated to engage in the policy process based on personal interest and altruistic inspiration. Bang and Sorensen (1999) identified three factors: learning new aptitudes and acquire information, social advantage (i.e. initiating new friendships), and presenting something or giving back (i.e. perhaps contributing to achieve enhanced results for YP within the community or village). The first two of these (i.e. learn new abilities and social advantage) may be compared to personal-interest classification, while the third (i.e. giving something back to the organisation or community) may be classified under altruistic aspirations. As outlined in chapter 7, I found that YP are less inclined to engage in activities that they do not feel inspired by, therefore, by comprehending what inspires YP to participate in policy making, along with other forums of the decision-making process for policy, YP participatory privileges and opportunities that feature or attract interests and inspirations should be developed to sustain the goal of engagement. Bang and Sorensen (1999) noted that YP appear to be drawn to opportunities that are intrinsically interesting and manifestly beneficial for them and their communities.

7.19 Political Capital and Young People

Participants demonstrated a formidable inspiration to be engaged conventional democratic politics, and hence they were passionate advocates of reducing the electoral age to 16 years.

This means that YP have enthusiasm for governmental and political issues and wish to participate in the process of democratic governance. According to Arnstein (1969), YP desire to cultivate honest valuation and appreciation for their own awareness of responsibility and competency in democratic governance. Chapter 1 highlighted that the goal of YPE is to advance and promote by strengthening empowerment and civil citizenship, and discussed the sociology of YP focused on the significance of considering them as agents within their own particular sphere of rights. This incorporates viewing YP as political operators rather than the conventional way they are regarded as beings of un-political status (Bernoff and Li, 2010).

This study discussed that granting YP democratic rights helped promote their status as citizens, while refusing them such rights conversely excludes them from political processes that may have significant impacts on their lives and their subsequent propensity, and their potential to be empowered, engaged, active adult citizens (Johnson, 2003; Li, 2018). Blackmore (2018, p.250) argued that active citizenry means group engagement through the voting booth. Consequently, involvement as an electorate would have been a civil obligation to YP has been neglected. Thus, for Johnson (2003), the non-engagement of YP in the electorate undermines the political democratic process itself; similarly, Drake, Fergusson and Griggs (2014) argue that democratic government is inseparable from the electorate.

There are some countries that have reduced their voting age to 16 to empower more YP to engage in the political system, including Nicaragua, Cuba, Brazil, and Somalia (UNICEF, 2001). In this study I found that the YP were requesting adjustment in the voting age to be reduced, however many elders and adults strongly disagreed with this notion. In this study I demonstrated the relationship between the nature of young peoples engagement and it meaningful contextual contribution to this study. The model explained below presents the relationship between the methods of promoting engagement, while the next section summarises the discussion.

7.20 Young People IN and OUT of School

YP engaged in the YPs Advocacy Rally (YPAR) and the NGO were primarily students in higher education, but the YPAR is available and open to all YP for enrolment, and it actively sought to recruit YP in schools, although the language of correspondence was English, which introduced some element of elitism by failing to reach out in local languages. The NGO adopts a different approach, since its primary objective is to attract YP who are not in full-time education. The NGO programmes are conducted in English and vernacular languages in NDN. Wong, Zimmerman and Parker (2010) argued that YP involved in civic governance need to be in school. My research recruitment requirement was YP aged 16-24 years of age, and my findings concerning this group affirm the conclusions of Wong, Zimmerman and Parker (2010), who questioned the chances and opportunities accessible to YP who are not in school to partake in policy procedures and processes. Further studies are required to address this issue.

7.21 The Voice and Power of Young People

I found that the voice of YP did not really allow them to affect decision-making. YP were supposed to consider politics a safe domain to dialogue and negotiate on matters affecting them, demonstrating a resolution after their dialogue, but conversely the dialogue, negotiations and resolutions accessible to YP in NDN could not influence the outcome of polices: in other words, YP have the voice to talk about issues affecting them, but no power to make an impact on policies that relate to them. Hayes (2007) argued that YP empowerment cannot be achieved if their communicated views are constantly dismissed. My findings are in line with those of Bernoff and Li (2010), who argued that when engagement programmes are conceived as a domain for YP to have discussion and dialogue on issues that are important to them, while the final decision remains the monopoly of elders, YP naturally question the

value of their engagement (see 2.6).

In a system network, power is manifest in practices (Bell, Vromen and Collin, 2008), whereby the achievement or disappointment of actors depends on their available resources and status (Haxton, 2007). Social stratification is manifest in NDN, whereby YP have limed social status compared to the elders and adults. Owuamanam and Owuamanam (2011) referred to the element of impact or power influence (i.e. impact, control, power, compulsion, and authority), in which YP are lacking. Impact might be accomplished by remunerating an actor (e.g. lobbying), but YP generally do not have the required assets to attempt such inducement. Control may be accomplished through trickery and deception, which YP cannot attempt, since elders regulate the scope of their engagement.

Power is likewise accomplished through the use of sanction enforcement. Again, YP are unable to sanction elders, and if they attempt to undermine elders, they will face power and intimidation, as well as universal disapprobation. Furthermore, as inherent members of the same prevailing culture, it is counter-intuitive for them to attempt behaviours and actions contrary to the expectations of defence to elders in NDN society (see 2.7). The demands of YP are usually viewed by the established system as lacking justification, and if their requests are considered, this is viewed as an act of beneficence to support YP, and not as an intrinsic right. As a result of these elements (i.e. YP limitations in resources and status), YP are naturally inhibited from engagement initiatives.

Therefore, YPE is inherently defective if YPs lack of empowerment is not addressed. Considering the rational nature of influence and power, elders dominate the political realm in NDN, and YPE is understood in terms of elders offering acknowledgment to YP and presenting opportunities to them (Pascal and Bertram, 2009; Bernoff and Li, 2010), advising YP and informing them of their limits of influence regarding decision-making, to avoid dissatisfaction and disappointment when their views are not acknowledged (Fletcher, 2010; Gane, 2017). Figure 7.5 shows methods of promoting YPE.

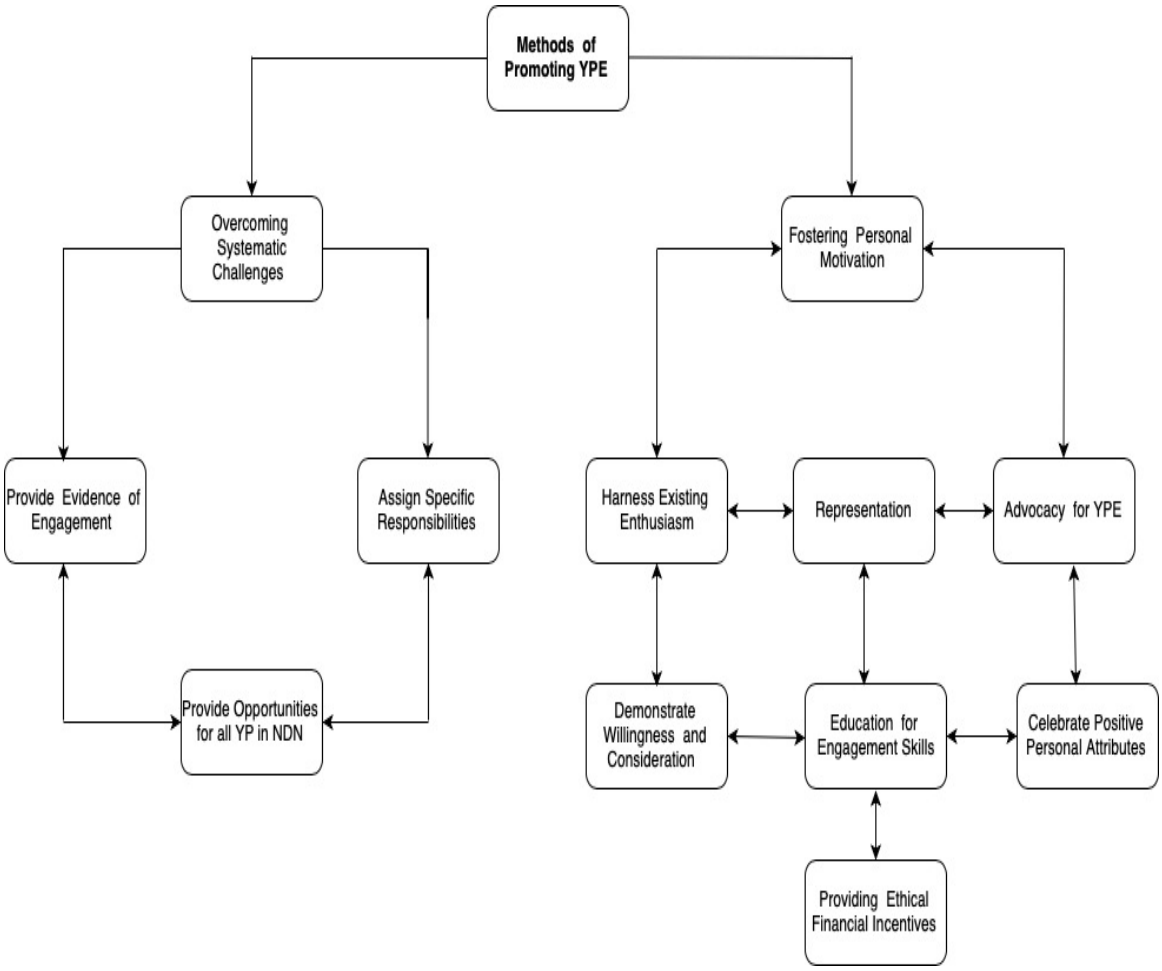

Figure 7.5: Methods of promoting YPE

7.22 Descriptive Model of the Nature of Young Peoples Engagement in NDN

The following model, presented in Figure 7.5, illustrates a summary of my findings, as considered in my descriptive discussion of the nature of young peoples engagement in NDN. The four discussed dimension of nature, processes, challenges (systematic) and promotions, are all connected to demonstrate the means through which YPE is explored in NDN. Furthermore, every point is linked to the type of engagement processes which, drawing on the literature, are presented with the following themes: membership enrolment as process to engagement,

Niger Delta youth and negotiations, national and regional levels of engagement processes, youth inclusiveness in policy processes, Niger Delta youth disposition, over-politicised young peoples organisations in NDN, socio-cultural hindrances to young peoples engagement in NDN, elders and adults as allies to Niger Delta youth, young peoples disparities as challenge, the cost of engagement, means of promoting engagement in NDN, personal attributes, the separation between principles and practice, drivers of young peoples engagement, political capital and young people, young people in and out of school, and the voice and power of young people. Thus, the reader can further link this study to existing literature by drawing on the context of this study, and further develop the descriptive views of this model for further study. Figure 7.6 shows the study model of the nature of YPE, based on the findings.

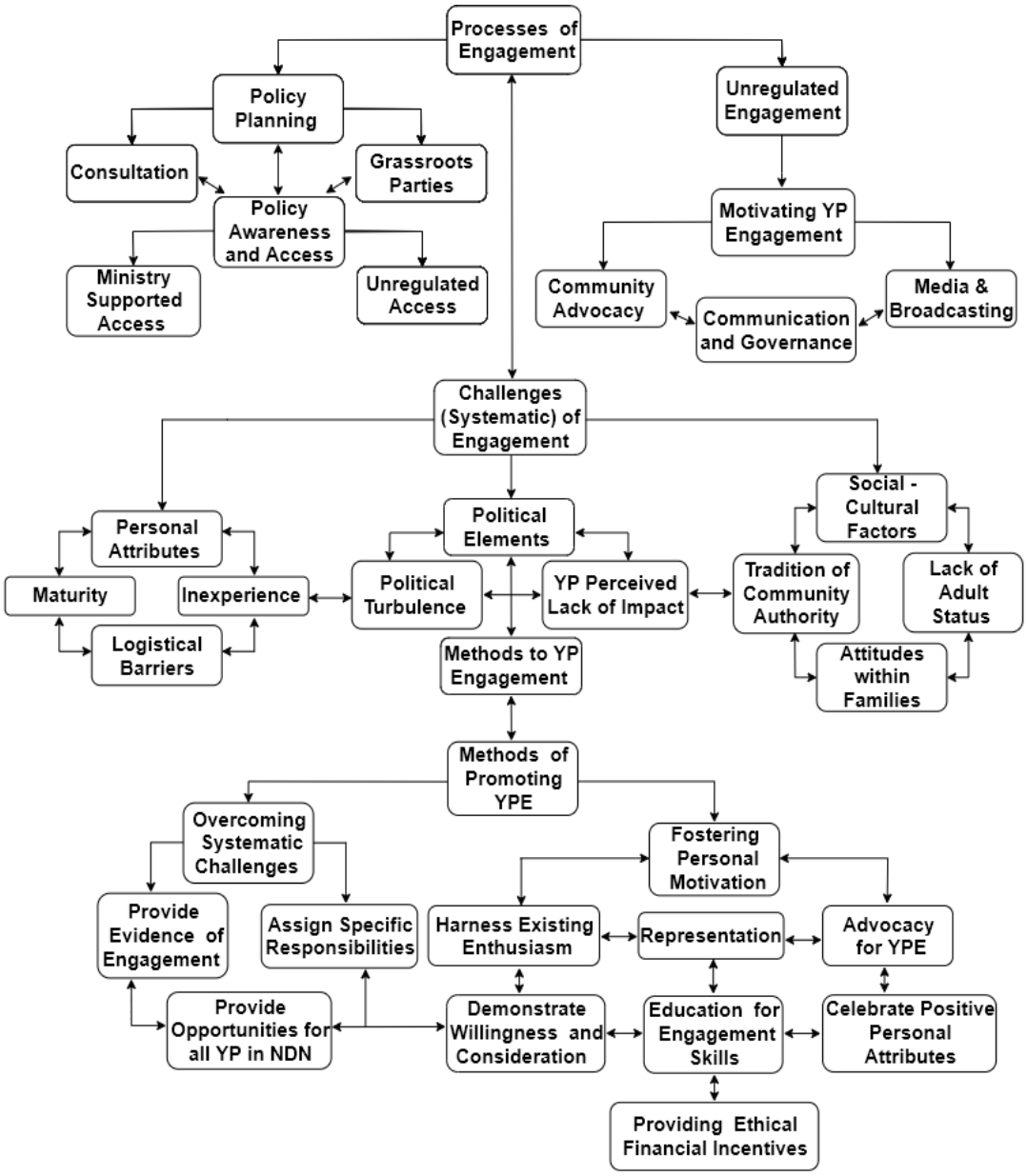

Figure 7.6: Study model of the nature of YPE

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter highlights various themes that surfaced from my study of young peoples political involvement in policy formulation processes in NDN. It starts by reconsidering the main research questions, the way in which these address my research work, and how they climax in the adopted model of the nature of young peoples engagement in policy formation processes in NDN. It proceeds to highlight some of the features of the adopted descriptive model that contribute to positive understanding for further study, and which demonstrate notable young peoples policy implications for pedagogical practice. It then concludes by reflecting on my methodological process, and by extension highlighting study implications of this research for practitioners, and its limitations. This chapter continues to draw upon the adopted descriptive model of the nature of young peoples engagement, as a sequence of links

that bring together the features of the context that emerged from this research work. Thus, this chapter could be considered as uniting the processes of YP engagement and linking it with the comprehending views that emerge from the exploration of young peoples political involvement in policy formation processes in NDN.

8.2 Answering the Research Questions

My motivation for carrying out this research study was my personal encounters working with young people and teaching young peoples development as a module. The main aim of this research work is to consider the nature of young of peoples engagement in formation of policy processes in NDN.

8.2.1 Main question:

- What is the nature of young peoples political involvement in policy processes in Nigeria (Niger Delta)?

8.2.2 Sub questions:

- In what ways are young people engaged in policy processes in the Niger Delta?
- What are the challenges to young peoples engagement in the policy implementation process?
- In what ways are young peoples engagement in policy processes promoted in the Niger Delta Region?

In answer to these research questions I have explored the nature of young peoples engagement

in policy processes in relation to the UNDP (2011) vision. Some emerging themes from the young peoples engagement processes which contributed to a clearer understanding of my research questions, especially within the context of this study (6.1-9). Section 6.2 particularly identified the processes of engagement at the national and regional levels with regard to policy planning in relation to the UN (Oluwaleye, 2017). Again, the questions of why and how these policies were utilised were answered together with my demonstration and presentation of various approaches concerning young peoples engagement in policy formation processes (6.3-8).

In connecting my findings as presented in chapters 6 and 7, I addressed the main research question in my discussion of the nature of young peoples engagement processes together with the allied literature. The adopted descriptive model, utilised in chapter 7, is an illustrative demonstration of how these processes can promote young peoples engagement. The resultant modelling also clarifies how each aspect relates to young peoples engagement in NDN.

Furthermore, my research work has successfully addressed each of the research questions within the context of the study, and by extension broadened the scope of research on the challenges to young peoples involvement in policy formation that often affect promoting positive and meaningful inclusion of young peoples participation. The next section recapitulates some key points that emerged from the descriptive model demonstrated in chapters 6 and 7.

8.3 Research Alignment with YP Policy Formation Processes

Young people are a group that did not exist in any tangible form with regard to governance until very recent history, but some modern analysts view them as a subjugated group of people that deserve liberation, analogous to women or working-class men prior to universal

suffrage (which excludes those aged under 18 in most democracies) (Brennan, 2008). The need to consider YP as a particular group deserving protection because of their vulnerabilities prompted the realisation of youth policy documents attempting to shield them from exploitation or abuse. Attempts to empower YP assumed an effective role in their own particular domain and protection, contributing toward the implementation of the 1989 United Nations Child Rights Convention (UNCRC), which can be extended to YP of 16-24, suggesting that the child has to be identified before he or she can be considered young people. The UNCRC noted the importance of allowing YP the privilege to make contributions to issues of concern to them. Thus, YP have progressed from a condition of imperceptibility to being participants in processes for making decisions, which ought to be in their favour.

However, in most political systems, including mature democracies, elders and adults often try to figure out what is in the best interests of YP, who are implicitly viewed with benevolent condescension as inherently irresponsible and immature people who are not yet fit to assume the full role of citizen. While elders and adults are generally enthusiastic to protect younger people and advocate their rights, such positions are generally political ones tailored to the interests of electors the parents of YP, and not YP themselves. Consequently, decisions made concerning YP often ignore their own potential contributions, and may even be contrary to their expressed wishes, consequently satisfying the interests of elders more than YP themselves.

In the public domain, political actors and leaders, decision-makers, establishments, and elders themselves primarily wish to satisfy their constituencies of predominantly adult and elder participants. In these research findings, YP expressed that YP are basically not engaged in federal ministry decision-making, since they are not enfranchised, thus they are not an electorate to be appeased or satisfied. One elder/adult participant expressed that YP are not included due to their low experience and immaturity, as they may not have appropriate regard and respect for elders. This suggests that the reasons presented by elders were intended to protect their own interests, and not the interests of YP.

The research findings suggest that YP already favour their emancipation and enfranchisement, while elders propose that for YP to be an effective electorate they need to undergo a civil education training. From the sociological viewpoint of YP (see chapter 3), while YP think of themselves as being (i.e. bone-fide citizenry), elders view them as becoming (i.e. citizens in the making), delineating another pressure in applying the principle of best interest. Thus, citizenship is a requirement for political engagement, but YP are usually acknowledged to be citizens only by the biological determinism of reaching the age of adults. Chapter 3 argued that the phase at which YP turn into adulthood is often determined through culture, which is reflected in political and legislative arrangements usually conferring adulthood at the age of 16-19 years as adulthood (this was often younger in pre-colonial, non-state societies, such as tribal cultures in NDN).

The issue of age and maturity for young adults is complex, affected by innumerable cultural and biological factors, but the attribution of political maturity to the late teens is generally considered to be relatively high in the age spectrum (George and Sice, 2014). Thus, for political engagement and citizenry, I agree with the contention of YP in this research, supporting that YP have got the capacity to participate in active political democratic enfranchisement from 15 years of age. I do not concur with the assertion that YP could not comprehend electioneering and accordingly require civil educational training. As argued by Christian and Okey (2017), those aged 16-20 generally have an equivalent understanding of the basic principles of democracy and elements that strengthen and weaken democratic governance compared to the general electorate.

Furthermore, civil education does not really initiate political enthusiasm among students or YP, as information and knowledge are not sufficient to prognosticate activism for the future. YP should be presented with opportunities to practice political democracy so that they can develop interest in politics as they are approaching adulthood. The early experience of YP political participation in democratic settings seems to help them develop positively as they cross into adulthood, such as schools with a democratic environment.

In NGN all public secondary schools are structured with democratic engagement, often implemented toward the end of the academic year (called Student Week). It is a process that leads to the election of student leaders, for example, Senior Class Prefects, Labour Prefects, Library Prefects, and Presidents for the Student Representative Council etc. All student contestants carry out a campaign for these elected positions by outlining the various agendas they will pursue if elected. This is the same principle at the national, state, and regional levels, where YP could comprehend and engage in democratic processes. Hence, social inclusion of YP leads to the future enrichment of political institutions and the advancement of practices that support democratic systems due to YP experiences of associations with institutions in communities, along with the rights to exercise and fulfil their obligations in those institutions.

The most fundamental way to foster such engagement is to enable YP to participate in democratic governance by voting in favour of candidates whose agendas and manifestoes reflect their interests. As YP progress into adulthood, they gradually become absorbed into general electoral and governmental issues, related to matters such as employment and public services, and subsequently their own childrens welfare, but the important YP age cohort are generally neglected in themselves because they are not viewed as an important electoral group by political actors, as they cannot vote under the age of 18. Conceding to voting rights at the age of 16 would support article 21 (3) of the Human Right Universal Declaration, and the International Covenant on Political and Civil Rights.

The fundamental importance of YPE is to empower and motivate YP as citizens. In this research I also argue that voting is key to citizenship. Chapter 4 highlighted that policy procedures are political ventures. Based on my research, to effectively empower YP to engage in this venture they have to acquire and practice political capital, the most rudimentary and fundamental form of which is enfranchisement in the electorate. Fundamentally, political leaders will consider the interests of YP if they are voters. However, because YP are currently so powerless relative to elders and adults, policy and law makers have little motivating force

to consider their interests as important. Thus, the consistent non-inclusion of 16 year-old YP from the public domain, particularly from emancipation and enfranchisement, generates serious concerns for social equity. The YP in this research have interests to protect and support, in pursuit of which their voices need to be expressed and listened to. Empowering them to vote for representatives who govern the democratic process is the only means by which the right to engage in decision making in the public domain can be actualised and protected.

8.4 Literature Implications

In the next section I will highlight the methodological implication of this study, but it is first necessary to reflect on the literature implication of this study. My research has contributed to developing the study of the phenomenon of YPE. Chapter 1 highlighted that YPE has mainly been researched in developed countries; unfortunately, the literature review demonstrated that little exploration has been carried out on YPE in NDN or in developing and democratising countries generally. One important contribution of this research is that it focusses on YPE and explores policy processes and engagement in NDN, increasing comprehension of YPE in developing societies. Despite universal affirmation of such phenomena, there is a dearth of research exploring the actual use of social media in YPE to advance, promote, and motivate YP in developing countries; this study suggests that this approach should be utilised to advance, promote, and motivate YP.

This study challenges the expanding theorisation of YPE as empowerment, demonstrating that in the rational exertion of power (Bell, Vromen and Collin, 2008), YP could not be empowered to have control or essentially impact on making decisions that influence their lives, since they cannot deploy any type of power against elders if their views and perspectives are overlooked by the latter (Beinhoff, 2011), who are responsible for making decisions.

Entrenching this research in the field of Policy Studies adds support to the literature by involving YP in the policy processes, from which they are excluded more often than not. Despite this, there are expanding endeavours to include YP in the processes of development, for those in the lower level of YP definition (16-18 year of age), who are mostly excluded. In this research I strongly suggested that those aged 16-18 have more shared traits with elders regarding their aspirations and desire to be incorporated into democratic governance. This research urges political leaders and policy makers to reconsider their view regarding political issues and YP, and to fundamentally acknowledge and understand that YP are interested in political matters.

Moreover, while there is a worldwide concern to advocate for the voice of YP in making decisions that influence them, YPE is been influenced by various social and cultural understandings of the concepts of young people and youth themselves. As discussed in the literature review, a significant part of the exploration of YP centres around the age cohort aged 16 to 24 years. This broad swathe of analysis leads to relatively less attention being paid to those just past the age threshold of 16, which is an intrinsically important age in most countries, and which is generally considered to signal the onset of (young) adulthood in many developing countries, particularly in Africa where traditional societies often considered the threshold of full adulthood to be much younger (Arnstein, 1969). There is a research deficit on 16 year olds, who are neither elders nor YP, and who have been excluded from most youth studies. This research further contributes by identifying this gap in existing knowledge.

I argue that there are similitudes and contrasts in the policy process between developed and developing nations (Kyongjae-Song, 2007). My literature review on policy processes explored in chapter 4 was mostly dependent on the authors from Australia, the UK, the US, and Scandinavian nations. Research articles regarding policy processes in developing nations are not very common. This research also contributes by exploring the contrast and distinction of policy processes developing and develop nations. This research is in line with Kyongjae-Songs (2007) perception that engagement in policy processes is lower in developing

nations than in developed ones. Brennan (2008) suggested that in some developed nations the formulation of policy stage is the most significant contestation area. In this research I have demonstrated that in NDN the significant contestation area is the implementation stage. This is intuitive, as interest or civil groups seem more mindful of the policies that can affect them as YP.

In this research, I challenge the perceptions that YP who are non-voters show low political viability. I found that despite not being part of the electorate, YP really have great enthusiasm and political viability (concerning individuals convictions in their capacity to comprehend and engage effectively in democratic governance) (Sleenoff and Ossweijer, 2015). Political viability is specifically identified with citizens awareness of how approachable political organizations and institutions are, in this context with regard to YP as actors in the party-political process. For people to be politically useful they should develop a perceptive guide of the political world, with solid lines of power running from themselves to bureaucratic realms (Sleenoff and Ossweijer, 2015). There are differences between external and internal viability or efficacy. Internal viability alludes to individuals trust in their own particular abilities to comprehend governmental issues or politics and demonstrated enthusiasm for it, while external viability alludes to individuals perspectives and encounters of how political organizations, institutions and actors in political settings react to them (i.e. individuals view of reliability of government officials, their responsiveness, and the consideration that voting could affect some changes) (Odunmbaku, 2015).

Low-level political viability brings about a low level of engagement in political institutions. Because of the low footprint of YPE in the electorate, they are marginalised by political actors, thus Andriole (1979) argues that YP have turned out to be non-interested in democratic governmental issues, and as such are walking out on political institutions. More recently, Capano and Lippi (2016) corroborated this assertion, and argued that YP who are not enfranchised will probably be less interested in governmental issues than voters. In this research, the YP negated such expectations. Regardless of their non-voting or electorate sta-

tus, by means of their social media and advocacy they have communicated politically, and by reaching out to actors of the political establishments, and by means of the social media bloc, they have contributed to parliamentary discussions, by which they show their enthusiasm for democratic political issues.

8.5 Methodological Implications

The next section highlights my studys theoretical implications in relation to academic content, but this section first identifies its methodological implications. After highlighting the strengths of the adopted approach for this current study, I will move to outline various means that future studies can take and develop to build on the outcomes of this contextual study.

It is important to begin by stating that this contextual study was exploratory, and I successfully collected my data by traveling to NDN to source required evidence needed to answer the research questions. In this manner my research contributed to the understanding of young peoples political involvement in policy formation processes in NDN and demonstrated a contemporary theoretical model that reveals how the nature of young peoples engagement worked (6.1-7.8).

As I was carrying on this research work, I noted some challenges that require attention if I am to undertake such projects in future. To start with, having a good knowledge of the importance of the nature of young peoples engagement activities when not on NGO duties gave me the opportunities to relate and links young peoples personal encounters with their personal approaches to engagement and inclusiveness. Nevertheless, in this research, details of young peoples engagement and encounters became very significant while conducting my data interviews. However, over time this appeared to be triangulated, as I depended mostly on young peoples descriptive encounters. In future research, I could moderate the dependence on young peoples encounters by further reconnoitring the national policies of the African

Union within the research context. It could have been effective through positive use of my personal records, including with regard to geographical topography or structure, and the observation of Young Peoples Policy Act guidelines as to how it relates to elderly women and parents within the study context. This could strengthen the reliability of further findings on the exploration of young peoples political involvement in policy formation processes in NGN.

My research work relies on young peoples policy documents and interviews with civil society for understanding and awareness of the broader engagement context. Thus, as the collected data was sufficient to give positive indication of the means through which engagement structures could contribute to young peoples inclusiveness in policy formation processes, my findings suggest that engagement structures is one such intervention of how young people considered opportunities to promote their wellbeing, and they willingly acknowledge those opportunities when they arise. My research interviews and the scope of documents was regulated based on my focus on young peoples political involvement in policy formation processes in NDN. Therefore, the implicit freedoms and limitations operating in the MYC within the context of young peoples engagement and formation will requires future research then I did when undertaking this such research work. This would strengthen the formation of good constructs within the context of this study and improve understanding of how to broaden young peoples engagement structures and embed them in policy formation processes in NDN. However, the limitations of time and resources reduced the extent to which I could accommodate such considerations in this research. Again, while I successfully answer all the research questions, there are still ways in which this could be improved if undertaken again.

8.6 Theoretical Implications: Policy Network Theory and Young People

Brett (2011a, 2011b) argued that policy procedures literature can improve the comprehension of YP, however this appears to be under-used in researching YPE. Rodway-Dyer (2014) argued that the literature on interest and civil groups bears valuable knowledge that could be applied to YP group engagement in continuous decision-making programmes. Chapter 4 argued that civil or interest groups may be considered in terms of insider groups, which are legal and often in consultation with policy-makers; and outsider groups, which are not considered legal and which are rarely consulted. Horton (2014) argued that insider groups can be separated into three: prisoner groups, which are beholden to the government for funding and thus controlled; high-profile groups, which wheedle the government and engage public opinion through popular appeals; and low-profile groups, which effectively work and mediate behind the scene.

Examples of each of these types were present in this research. The MYC and the NDYDC could be viewed as prisoner groups reliant on the MYC for subsidy and staffing. As highlighted in chapter 6, the NGOs could be considered to be high-profile groups, since they use their mediation to motivate awareness on public issues of concern. The YPAR can be regarded as a low-profile insider, because it works on the regional and community levels, and its operations or activities are not immediately obvious to the wider public. My findings indicate that outsider groups included the NDYCA and NDYL, defined thus as a result of their non-enrolment with the MYC, due to which they lack official legitimacy. As discussed previously, only officially registered organisations are consulted during YPP formulations.

Ruiz-Estrada (2011) argued that policy-makers confer legitimacy on groups according to what such groups can offer in terms of resources on the ground. May (1992) suggested that groups need to have proficiency and knowledge, particularly the proficiency that is not

possessed by any other groups. Furthermore, civil and interest groups need to demonstrate some political abilities in order to be acknowledged as insiders, demonstrating to government employees or civil servants that are capable of performing substantive, useful functions such as addressing cases, negotiating a deal and acknowledging the results of negotiations (Horton, 2014). Thus, civil and interest groups need to behave professionally for policy-makers to attain their legitimacy.

Behaving professionally entails playing by the rules established by government employees or civil servants, and ultimately it involves being co-opted into the existing political discourse (Rodway-Dyer, 2014). This appears especially essential when connected to the ministries and the dissolution of the MYCSM. These mediums or forums were insider groups, since they had an understanding of the perspectives and aspirations of YP which could be presented to the MYC for empowerment initiating programmes in order to aid YPP implementation. However, because of not acting as expected or not accepting inducement (i.e. their unwillingness to be induced by the MYC), they appear to have lost their status as insiders and they subsequently dissolved.

The civil or interest group literature highlighted that civil or interest groups need to have different resources available to viably make an impact on policy makers (Lawndes and Pratchett, 2006; Zimmerman and Parker, 2010). Thus, aside from the proficiency resources that the MYCSM possesses, the forum could not possess other valuable MYC resources. This suggests that this is applicable to other YP group organisations that are trying to influence policy makers. Again, the MYCSM appears to have been weak because of the prisoner-insider status, since they were dependent and attached to the particular institution that they looked to influence. The MYC initiated the formation of the MYCSM, made provision for meeting spaces, and offered refreshments at meeting times for the groups, but when some individuals began to refuse to follow the expected political and media guidelines (i.e. subservience to the MYC), the Ministry turned against them. This case corroborates the observation of Horton (2014) that insider-groups need to supportively perform in other to please policy makers, so

that their status as inside-groups can be maintained.

Rodway-Dyer (2014) studied civil or interest groups comprising of 20 YP aged 16-25 as board members on a community council for YPP matters, finding that the group needed to show that they were reliable, had integrity, and could be depended on to perform effectively; in other words, they had to assuage any concerns of elders and meet their expectations of YPE relating to political procedures or processes. Consequently, the group was powerless in regard to the community council because of its dependence on it for funding and facilitation, and it was thus powerless to influence community youth policy.

The disparities between my own findings and those of Rodway-Dyer (2014) include that the civil or interest group presented in the latter was not dissolved because it failed to meet the expectations of official political stakeholders, but because it performed ineffectively, and was inconsistent with YPE (Drake, Fergusson and Griggs, 2014). My own findings clarify why YP seem not to be engaging effectively in the public arena: because they are often expected to accept the societal status quo instead of challenging processes.

I have come to understand that there are two conflicting criticisms regarding YPE: issues of representation, and YP acculturation into elders roles through engagement. While engaging, YP are expected to be representative of your interests and to articulate the voice of their peers, but according to elders beliefs and expectations, youth engagement is predicated on following expected standards and rules to perform effectively. Thus, if YP attempt to span the gap between genuine representation and advocacy for YP and the conflicting expectations of elders by acting neutrally, they are berated by elders for disrespect and immaturity, while if they conform wholeheartedly to the political status quo they are criticised by their constituents (i.e. YP) for being absorbed into the elders and not representing their grassroots peers. Furthermore, this suggests that the achievement of any engagement activities to a large extent is based on the role of the elders, who can encourage or motivate YPE and shape the form it takes due to their privileged control of power and resources. Accordingly, for YP

to have meaningful and effective engagement within the public arena, elders need to make changes in their approach in order to genuinely accommodate YP.

8.7 Policy Implications

These studies shift the attention of policy makers from formal structured engagement systems or approaches to the realm of informal approaches or structures, whereby YP are acquainted and grouped in proto-political (in the formal sense of political) structures and processes. This research work strongly urges policy makers to seek the right domain in trying to advance and motivate YP perspectives on policy processes, involving schools, YP associations, social media villages, and communities-based associations of YP.

Furthermore, policy makers need to know about the strength of villages and communities any time they hold consultations and negotiations. I have argued that calling YP to elders forums in villages or communities may not motivate YP to express themselves, since socio-cultural elements remain a barrier to their self-representation and advocacy in such contexts. Consequently, different consultation and negotiation events should be arranged for YP. In this study, I suggested a reconsideration of the apolitical status attributed to YP and demonstrated that YP aspired to engage in the democratic governance of the region, state, and nation; as such, there is urgent need to give and consider the voting rights of YP at various levels of governance in NDN. Extending enfranchisement would ensure that political leaders along with policy makers uphold and retain regular consultations with YP, presenting them with a chance to talk about their worries, and to look for help and commitment regarding their issues of concern. Such engagement could also motivate YP to form and effectively make an impact on policy processes, and possibly produce achievable results in the lives of YP.

This research has implications for YPE in principle and practice. Elders are expected to

adequately motivate YP to engage in the public arena (chapter 8.3), but there is a challenge in the upper ladders of engagement (chapter 2) related to YP managing and controlling their own particular programmes without elders, which is impractical, thus requiring the advocacy of elders involvement in order to advance and promote YPE. Thus, after clearly presenting these implications for young peoples policy formation and pedagogic practice, I will conclude with the research evaluation, identification of the study limitations, and recommendations based on my findings.

8.8 Research Evaluation

Adams (2016) suggested that concepts like generalisation, validity, and reliability need to be questioned in social and political science research because they conceptualise using psychometrics, which can decontextualize people. Jobard (2013) argued that the basic rule of interpretivism and constructivism is the importance of contextualising meanings, along with reality being constructed socially; consequently, concepts like objectivity and dependability, or reliability and validity, are useful for constructivist research. The concept of trustworthiness was proposed in order to assess the thoroughness of constructivist research study. Aligical and Sabetti (2014) suggested that trustworthiness pertains to being fair and balanced, and conscientiously assessing different views, interests, and realities. Elkatawneh (2016) argued that trustworthiness initiated in constructivist research uses procedures that offer truth and values by means of transferability, applicability, and credibility, with consistency by dependability, and a lack of bias through confirmability. My research attains trustworthiness through the use of the stated constructivist procedures.

8.8.1 Credibility

Credibility pertains to the precision of information. Aligical and Sabetti (2014) urged research analysts to reveal any professional and individual information which can influence data collection. I highlighted this in my ethical consideration and research reflexivity (chapter 5). Triangulation of various methods with various kinds of informants was employed to ensure that personal perspectives were cross-checked against others, so as to get a more comprehensive and panoramic understanding of YPE.

8.8.2 Transferability

Transferability means the extent to which findings could be justifiable and related to different contexts. Anumba et al. (2008) questioned the transferability of the findings of a single study to different contexts and contended that such attempts dismiss the significance of context itself, which is very important in qualitative research. Jobard (2013) contended that it is the duty of a researcher to offer relevant data contexts in order to ensure that readers understand and decide whether the transfers can be useful in relative situations. This research has presented extensive information on the context of data and contextual elements or factors, and it is for readers to decide the transferability of my findings to their particular research or policy concerns.

8.8.3 Dependability

Dependability concerns the extent to which the research can be replicated. I have presented a review trail of the study procedure (e.g. methodology sample, interviews recording, interviews formalities and protocol and access to consultations), as discussed in chapter 5, to demonstrate the dependability of this research.

8.8.4 Confirmability

According to Anumba et al. (2008), confirmability means that the research findings demonstrate the experience and thoughts of the research participants, and not merely reflections of the researchers own preferences. In this research I used the triangulation of different types of informant and in-vivo coding of information collected to minimise the impact of my academic and personal predispositions. Anumba et al. (2008) argued that in order to increase confirmability, researchers need to acknowledge and address potential bias and views supporting the research method, which was addressed in chapter 5.

8.9 Limitations

This research project, which explores controversial issues concerning NDN political democratic government, was begun prior to the 2019 election period in Nigeria. Subsequently, the utilisation of youth issues during political parties campaigning led to the MYC being hesitant to discuss YP or youth policies. As discussed, the MYC is a federal government ministry which includes political appointees as the administration heads and officers. The National Coordinator (i.e. Minister) of this Ministry was contesting a position in his senatorial district. Considering the nature of my research and the time of fieldwork, I was unable to receive necessary cooperation from the MYC. Consequently, it is conceivable that some of my research participants may have presented politicised and disingenuous or biased responses.

As noted by Brown and Wocha (2017), social desirability bias is common when researching issues of concern among political actors, who are intrinsically skilled at managing their public relations image and obfuscation to hide or downplay phenomena with negative attributions. In order for me to counter such bias, I included various groups of respondents, such as political party leaders, civil servants and organisations, and YP, in order to view the phenomenon of YPE from multiple angles, which greatly improves the credibility of my research findings.

In some cases, the information I sought from some sources was unavailable, such as explanations by YP, political party leaders, and interest groups regarding the implementation of APYP, which were not accessible. On different occasions, the outcomes from various sources was different, thus I undertook more investigation than originally intended. For instance, a senior staff member of the MYC claimed that the APYP was accessible to associations enrolled with the MYC, but when I interviewed one of the enrolled associations, they disputed this claim. Further investigation with MYC officers at the regional level confirmed that they themselves had not seen the APYP, indicating at least a disconnect between the policy of the central Ministry and actions on the ground.

The over-politicised nature of YPP in NDN led to some circumstances in which I had no clear place to go to in order to seek answers to my research questions, which impeded achievement of some study objectives. For instance, one of my study objectives was to explore YPE in the advancement or development of the APYP, but because of its confidentiality I was unable to assay the degree of YP inclusion in it. In my opinion, I think that if I had enjoyed the full backing of the MYC to undertake this study, my access to the political domain would have been facilitated, and if I had conducted the fieldwork in a year without elections the outcomes could have been different. The youth policy implementation for APYP would have become accessible to me as a researcher, and officials might not have been hesitant to give answers to my inquiries.

This research is also limited because of the lack of political leaders perspectives. Political motivation is required to drive engagement programmes forward. Perspectives of political leaders could have been a support to established if they can participate effectively with YP, if YP are to engage in electorates. In my research design I intended to interview some ministers and political representatives in the MYC, however I could not get any positive responses from them.

Furthermore, I was unable to get the viewpoints of female participants guardians, thus it

cannot be claimed that this research expresses the representative views of all elders in NDN. As presented in Table 5.1, unfortunately all participants in this research were men, thus the perceptions communicated reflect male points of view. Because of gender issues that are directly pertinent to YPE, particularly the exclusion of women, females may have presented different viewpoints, however I was unable to obtain such views because of the absence of female headship in the associations or organisations involved in this research. Additionally, guardians in general play a fundamental role in YPE (Wilson and Wilks, 2013).

Furthermore, it should be noted that this research was not undertaken across Nigeria, and my findings cannot be considered as representing Nigerian YP views or perceptions as a whole; this research was targeted to the already heterogeneous society of NDN. Furthermore, this research has some urban bias, since it was conducted within urban districts. Although I was careful to consciously explore opportunities and barriers to engagement for disadvantaged groups, including rural dwellers, logistical barriers made it impossible to access actual YP in remote areas of NDN. Thus, the two districts in which I conducted this research do not represent the views all YP, and the sample size is inherently relatively small.

Additionally, this research did not involve YP who are disabled, whose perspectives and encounters regarding engagement were not considered. Initially I thought I could incorporate such participants, but they ultimately proved to be inaccessible to my research fieldwork, which reflects the intrinsic practical and logistical barriers they themselves face in NDN.

Despite these limitations, this research has presented the awareness and understanding along with insight regarding YP perspectives and policy processes engagement.

8.10 Recommendation for Further Research Areas

Chapter 8.1.2 noted the socio-cultural hindrances or challenges to engagement posed by guardians, who can exert decisive positive or negative influences on YPE development. Additionally, there is a clear gender dimension to the way in which elders view men and women, thus it is important to consider whether guardians assume different motivating or hindering roles with regard to engagement in political processes by YP according to gender. I could not answer this question in this study, since the views of guardians were not included in this research. This requires further investigation.

I also did not present the views of elderly women, political leaders, school dropouts, the disabled, and YP in remote regions; these are areas of concern that require further research to uncover the opportunities and barriers to YP in such situations. Exploration of political leaders and party heads, as well as elderly womens views, would be helpful in divulging their dispositions in including YP in policy processes.

The policy document is required to be reviewed every 4-5 years. It will be important to consider the privileges and opportunities that will be accessible for YP engaged with the assessment, evaluation, and review of these policies to address what had been done and what YPE has accomplished (Dyson and Preston, 2006). Furthermore, there is need for a comparative exploration of the youth policy to assist in comprehending the difference with other nations in the extent to which global commitments are being realised in regard to incorporating youth policy. About 150 nations of the UN are accounted to have incorporated youth policies (Kohler, 1982), while in Nigeria there are limited studies regarding policy formulation, implementation, and evaluation, which makes it difficult to make comparison.

According to Kohler (1982), the UN Report on Formulating Youth Policy in Sri Lanka noted the numerous privileges and opportunities offered to YP to engage in policy processes. For example, they make use of opinion boxes and put it in the public domain to ensure the

contribution of more views and thoughts, and the policy makers initiated a YP medium and utilised Facebook to seek the views of YP, whereby in addition to English the government ministries requested the views of individuals in various local languages. While Sri Lanka is an egregious offender against democracy at the time of writing this thesis, their former early progress in YPE strongly contrasts with the circumstances in Nigeria, where individuals were called to engage in formulation process in a venue where English language was used, intrinsically limiting the inclusion of individuals who were not able to communicate in English (who are in general of implicitly lower socio-economic status by default).

However, the policy formulating process in Nigeria appears more youth-focused when juxtaposed with that of Poland, where the YPP document was completely drafted and prepared by some academics with no active engagement of YP (Kohler, 1982). Antrobus (2001) noted that the formulation of the youth policy in China was effective by means of the Communist Youth League, whose membership includes people aged 15-30 years, but the study does not explain how the engagement processes occurred, and it argues for a review of YPE in China. Further research is required from other nations to compare and contrast experiences of the formulation of YPP documents.

8.11 Importance of the Study

The significance of this research and the advice it offers to academia, practice and policy makers are chiefly related to the information it brings to researchers and policy makers concerning the initiation of more current vote-based systems in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. It clarifies and explains the outstanding low rates of formal and informal political engagement among YP and the public. It presents why YP seem to show less interest in voting or joining political movements and participating in political gatherings. It presents timely insights needed to form the basis of practical initiatives to support YPs political

participation.

8.12 Contributions to Knowledge

This research contributes to developing study of the phenomenon of young peoples engagement. It finds that the processes of young peoples engagement describe relationships between formulation and implementation of young peoples policy in NDN. The study also identifies that challenges to young peoples engagement in NDN are systematic in nature, and methods of promoting YP engagement are better understood through acknowledging the need to present young people with positive, skilful opportunities. The particular contributions of this research relate to its focus on YPE and exploration of policy processes and engagement in NDN. This study contributes by increasing comprehension of YPE in a developing society (NDN). It highlights the significance of active citizenship and engagement in political issues and the need for the development of improved democratic government. YPE in NDN, as discussed, has not been substantively explored, thus making this piece of work a unique contribution to the field, which is the essence of a PhD investigation. This study offers an understanding of the relationship between the nature of YPE in a meaningful and contextual manner with regard to NDN. This study enriches the literature supporting the involvement of YP in engagement processes: for example, listening to them during fieldwork and engaging them in this research, as they would traditionally be excluded from such inquiries, being viewed as passive receptacles of government and academic activities. This study contributes the assertion that the approach YPE should be utilised to advance, promote, and motivate YP so that their voices will be listened to in NDN.

8.13 Recommendations

As a result of the over-politicisation of structures relating to YP organisation in NDN found in this study, it is recommended that the MYC be made an autonomous institution centred around building and initiating YP capacity and potential, instead of an appendage to the democratic government and the corresponding machinations of political parties. The MYC would be more effective if its directors were not political nominees and appointees. Greater autonomy (i.e. independence from the government and its political factionalism) may empower MYC officials, enabling them to concentrate on ensuring, protecting, and advancing YP enthusiasm, so that they will not be compromised in genuinely representing YP and advocating their rights and interests for the universal benefit of Nigerian society (including the future political process and democratisation).

In this research, YP demonstrated enthusiasm for being engaged with governmental issues and governance. I recommend that the enrolment of the Youth Parliament be inclusive of junior and secondary school representatives. Furthermore, opportunities should be offered to YP from the age of 16 years, including the privilege of enfranchisement in local and national elections, and it would be a realistic goal to target inclusion in local elections first as a trial run in NDN and throughout Nigeria.

In chapter 1 it was presented that YP often consider elder and adult engagement mediums to be intimidating or exhausting, and they need to have their own domain where elders and adults assume motivating roles rather than mandatory oversight functions. YP policy formulation processes are conditioned by the gerontocratic nature of NDN society, where regard and respect for elders and adults hinders YP from effectively participating in formal negotiation, and consultation mediums where elders, adults, and YP come together on a genuinely equal footing are absent. Thus, I recommend that YP be supported to initiate their own particular engagement groups, which may subsequently become accessible to policy makers to distinguish and participate with YP in their own domain or space.

My recommendations can be practically effective if implemented, but the greatest barrier is the lack of genuine willingness for implementation. For example, in England and Wales (UK), the National Youth Agency Chief Executive is not in office based on political appointment, and the institution itself is an NGO, which suggests that it is practical to de-politicize YP institutions or organisations. Thus, it is possible to broaden the enrolment of Youth Parliament in NDN to YP of 16 years of age and above. UK Youth Parliament membership is accessible from 13 years of age, and in Somalia and Iran those aged 15-16 years are enfranchised in the national electorate, suggesting that YP may be prepared and have the capacity to participate actively in democratic enfranchisement.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

Vite, B.N, Dibang -Achua, R. O. (2019). Forming Young People and Citizenship; Nessa Journal Social and Political Science, 1(9)1-15

Vite, B.N, Dibang -Achua, R. O. (2019). Youth Engagement Literature; Nessa Journal Social and Political Science, 1(8), 1-14

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APPENDIX B

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Focus group discussion

B.1 The Research Project

Title of project: AN EXPLORATION OF YOUNG PEOPLES POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT IN POLICY FORMATION PROCESSES IN NIGERIA (NIGER DELTA).

1. **Brief summary of research:** This research focuses on young people to contribution to policy making and the implementation in the Niger Delta Region in Nigeria. Youth

policy as well as youth participation in the region will be evaluated and the various impacts of engagement

2. **Purpose of the study:** This is part of my PhD research work at Anglia Ruskin University, Chelmsford United Kingdom. This research will help to provide an avenue to explore the norms and dynamics of youth needs in the Niger Delta

3. **Name of your Supervisor:** Professor Tim Waller & Dr Linda Cooper.

4. **How many people will be asked to participate?** A maximum of 8 people involved in youth policy or organizations will be invited to participate in each focus group taking place in either a rural or urban area.

5. **What are the likely benefits of taking part?** This research is seeking to understand the lives and perspectives of young people in the Niger Delta. You are invited to participate. The aim is to improve the quality of information available about young lives and help young people better engage with society.

6. **Can I refuse to take part?** If you decide not to take part in the research you will not be asked to explain.

7. **Has the study got ethical approval?** This research has ethical approval from an ethics committee at Anglia Ruskin University Chelmsford Essex United Kingdom.

8. **Has the organisation where you are carrying out the research given permission?** There is need for general permission to approach participants and it is the decision of each person whether he and she would like to take part in the research.

9. **Source of funding for the research, if applicable. Is this research funded?** NO.

10. **What will happen to the results of the study?**

The documentation will be included in the thesis, and it will only be included with the participants consent. This research operates under the guidelines of the British Educational Research Association and within Anglia Ruskin University of Research Ethics Framework, and it will be disseminated through the journal and book publications. In addition, the results will be shared with the participants.

11. **Contact for further information**

    Bari-ika Nornubari Vite
    Email: bari-ika.vite@pgr.anglia.ac.uk
    Faculty of Health Social Care & Education.
    Bishop Hall Lane,
    Anglia Ruskin University, Chelmsford, Essex, UK.
    CM1 1SQ.

B.2 Your Participation in the Research Project

1. **What will I be asked to do?** If you are willing to partake in the research, you need to sign an informed consent form and return it to the researcher. You will then be invited to collaborate in a Focus group discussion.

2. **Will my participation in the study be kept confidential?**

   All participants will be asked to respect the confidentiality of other people involved in the Focus Group and are asked to keep other participants comments confidential. However, the researcher cannot guarantee this.

   The participants in this research will be anonymous within all the project work, internal documentation and the thesis.

3. **Are there any possible disadvantages or risks to taking part** The research could

be an inconvenience to you, in terms of the time taken to attend to any of the date collection and dissemination outside working hours, but any effort put in will be highly appreciated.

4. **Whether I can withdraw at any time, and how?** If you do agree to take part, you retain the right to withdraw from the research at any time for any reason, you just need to tell the researcher your decision. You will not be asked to explain your reason for withdrawing. The participants may not answer any focus group or interview questions, if they do not wish to.

5. **Whether there are any special precautions you must take before, during or after taking part in the study?** NO

6. **If carrying out qualitative interviews with participants, will they be shown a copy of the transcript?** YES

7. **I understand that the focus group will be audio recorded and transcribed.**

8. **Contact details for complaints.** If participants have any complaints about the study, You are encourage to speak to the researcher or write any of the Supervisors Prof Tim Waller, tim.waller@anglia.ac.uk or Dr Linda Cooper, linda.cooper@anglia.ac.uk in the first instance, or access to details about Anglia Ruskin Universitys complaints procedure.

   Email address: complaints@anglia.ac.uk.

   Postal address: Office of the Secretary and Clerk, Anglia Ruskin
   University, Bishop Hall Lane, Chelmsford, Essex, CM1 1SQ.

Version control

For further information please refer to section 4.2 of the Code of Practice for applying for ethical approval at Anglia Ruskin University (Version 4,October, 2015)

PARTICIPANTS SHOULD BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS TO KEEP, TOGETHER WITH A COPY OF THE CONSENT FORM.

APPENDIX C

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Semi-Structured Interview

C.1 The Research Project

Title of project: AN EXPLORATION OF YOUNG PEOPLES POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT IN POLICY FORMATION PROCESSES IN NIGERIA (NIGER DELTA).

1. **Brief summary of research:**

This research focuses on young people to contribution to policy making and the implementation in the Niger Delta Region in Nigeria. Youth policy as well as youth participation in the region will be evaluated and the various impacts of engagement.

2. **Purpose of the study:** This is part of my PhD research work at Anglia Ruskin University, Chelmsford United Kingdom. This research will help to provide an avenue to explore the norms and dynamics of youth needs in the Niger Delta.

3. **Name of your Supervisor:** Professor Tim Waller & Dr Linda Cooper.

4. **How many people will be asked to participate?** A maximum of 6 people involved in youth policy or organizations will be invited to participate in a semi-structured interview lasting approximately 20-30 minutes.

5. **What are the likely benefits of taking part?** This research is seeking to understand the lives and perspectives of young people engagement in the Niger Delta. You are invited to participate. The aim is to improve the quality of information available about young lives and help young people better engage with society.

6. **Can I refuse to take part?** If you decide not to take part in the research, you will not be asked to explain.

7. **Has the study got ethical approval?** This research has ethical approval from an ethics committee at Anglia Ruskin University Chelmsford Essex United Kingdom.

8. **Has the organisation where you are carrying out the research given permission?** There is need for general permission to approach participants and it is the decision of each person whether he & she would like to take part in the research.

9. **Source of funding for the research, if applicable. Is this research funded?** NO

10. **What will happen to the results of the study?** The documentation will be included in the thesis, and it will only be included with the participants consent. This research operates under the guidelines of the British Educational Research Association and within Anglia Ruskin University of Research Ethics Framework, and it will be disseminated through the journal and book publications. In addition, the results will be shared with the participants.

11. **Contact for further information**

    Bari-ika Nornubari Vite

    Email: bari-ika.vite@pgr.anglia.ac.uk

    Faculty of Health Social Care & Education.

    Bishop Hall Lane,

    Anglia Ruskin University, Chelmsford, Essex, UK.

    CM1 1SQ.

C.2 Your Participation in the Research Project

1. **What will I be asked to do?** If you are willing to partake in the research, you need to sign an informed consent form and return it to the researcher. You will then be invited to collaborate in a Semi-structured interview.

2. **Will my participation in the study be kept confidential?** Your participation in the study will be confidential and all participants in this research will be anonymous within all the project work, internal documentation and the thesis. However, with your consent comments made during the interview may be included in the reported data but will not be attributable to you as an individual.

3. **Are there any possible disadvantages or risks to taking part** The research could

be an inconvenience to you, in terms of the time taken to attend to any of the date collection and dissemination outside working hours, but any effort put in will be highly appreciated.

4. **Whether I can withdraw at any time, and how.** If you do agree to take part, you retain the right to withdraw from the research at any time for any reason, you just need to tell the researcher your decision. You will not be asked to explain your reason for withdrawing. The participants may not answer any interview questions, if they do not wish to.

5. **Whether there are any special precautions you must take before, during or after taking part in the study?** NO

6. **If carrying out qualitative interviews with participants, will they be shown a copy of the transcript?** YES

7. **I understand that the interview will be audio recorded and transcribed.**

8. **8. Contact details for complaints.** If participants have any complaints about the study, You are encourage to speak to the researcher or write any of the Supervisors Prof Tim Waller, tim.waller@anglia.ac.uk or Dr Linda Cooper, linda.cooper@anglia.ac.uk in the first instance, or access to details about Anglia Ruskin Universitys complaints procedure.

   Email address: complaints@anglia.ac.uk.

   Postal address: Office of the Secretary and Clerk, Anglia Ruskin

   University, Bishop Hall Lane, Chelmsford, Essex, CM1 1SQ.

Version control

For further information please refer to section 4.2 of the Code of Practice for applying for ethical approval at Anglia Ruskin University (Version 4,October, 2015)

PARTICIPANTS SHOULD BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS TO KEEP,

TOGETHER WITH A COPY OF THE CONSENT

APPENDIX D

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Focus Group Discussion

D.1 NAME OF PARTICIPANT:

Title of the project: AN EXPLORATION OF YOUNG PEOPLES POLITICAL INVOLVEMENT IN POLICY FORMATION PROCESSES IN NIGERIA (NIGER DELTA).

Main investigator and contact details: Bari-ika Vite Telephone: +234 8056 775 856

Email: bari-ika.vite@pgr.anglia.ac.uk

Members of the research team: Professor Tim Waller, Dr Linda Cooper and Bari-ika Vite

1. I agree to take part in the above research. I have read the Participant Information Sheet.

   I understand what my role will be in this research, and all my questions have been answered to my satisfaction.

2. I understand that I am free to withdraw from the research at any time, without giving a reason.

3. I am free to ask any questions at any time before and during the study.

4. I understand what will happen to the data collected from me for the research.

5. I have been provided with a copy of this form and the Participant Information Sheet.

6. I understand that my comments may be used in the dissemination of the research but that I will give my consent when reviewing the transcript of the Focus Group.

7. I understand that the Focus Group will be audio recorded and transcribed and that I will be shown a copy of the transcript for approval.

8. I will respect the confidentiality of the other participants by not reporting their comments or involvement in the Focus Group.

Data Protection: I agree to the University processing personal data which I have supplied. I agree to the processing of such data for any purposes connected with the Research Project as outlined to me*

Name of participant

Print ..

Signed.. Date..

PARTICIPANTS MUST BE GIVEN A COPY OF THIS FORM TO KEEP

ADD DATE AND VERSION NUMBER OF CONSENT FORM.

I WISH TO WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY.

If you wish to withdraw from the research, please speak to the researcher or email at barika.vite@pgr.anglia.ac.uk by 17 October 2017.

Title of Project:

Understanding the implications of the human development approach for youth policy in Nigeria (Niger Delta).

Signed.. Date..

You do not have to give a reason for why you would like to withdraw.

Please let the researcher know whether you are/are not happy for them to use any data from you collected to date in the write up and dissemination of the research.

APPENDIX E

FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

Organisation:

Date:

Time & place of interview:

Questions:

Q1. What do you know regarding the young people or youth policy? Please explain.

Q2. What is the role of young people towards youth policy implementation?

Q3. In your view why do you believe that policy makers are not engaging with young people?

Q4. What concerns did you present in your engagement with policy makers? Tell me what

the engagement means to you?

Q5. How can negotiation among young people and policy makers be improved?

Q6. In your opinion, do you think that the participatory policy objective of the young peoples policy is achievable? Discuss

APPENDIX F

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Organisation:

Name of interviewer:

Position of participant:

Date:

Time & Place of interview:

Questions:

Q1. How did young people engagement in the youth policy formulation?

Q2. How are youth being engaged in the youth policy implementation of the? Either through regional or national development plan of action?

Q3. In your view why do you believe that policy makers are not engaging with young people?

Q4. What are the approaches used to engage young people and policy makers?

Q5. How can negotiation among young people and policy makers be improved?

Q6. In your opinion, do you think that the participatory policy objective of the young peoples policy is achievable? Discuss?

APPENDIX G

LIST OF CORE PARTICIPANTS

Names & Organisations	**Data Participants**	**Note**
Federal Government Institutions	Participant A	Interviews, including policy documents
NGOs	Participant B	Interviews conducted with organisations
Stakeholders	Participant C	Interviews conducted with parents and others
Youths	Participant D	Interviews conducted with young people

Note:

- Names of participant are withheld on ethical grounds
- Participant A-D are used to represent data participants in the findings chapter (6) section 1 and 2